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The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF

Secondary-School Principals

A DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION
OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

ISSUED MONTHLY, OCTOBER TO MAY, INCLUSIVE

Curriculum in Intergroup Relations

**Case Studies in Instruction for
Secondary Schools**

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**THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

PAUL E. ELICKER *Executive Secretary*

PAUL E. ELICKER *Editor*

WALTER E. HESS *Managing Editor*

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PROGRAM
for the
THIRTY-THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION
of the

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

A Department of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
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Closing Wednesday afternoon, March 2, 1949

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GENERAL
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Presiding: **Clarence E. Blume**, Principal, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Presentation

of the colors: Students of the Du Sable High School, Chicago, Illinois.

Audience: Singing of "The Star Spangled Banner," led by **Mildred Repke**.

Music: Choir, Du Sable High School, Chicago, Illinois.
Mildred Repke, Conductor.

Greetings: **Butler Laughlin**, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of High Schools, Chicago Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois.

Address: EDUCATION FOR THE ATOMIC AGE.

Sumner T. Pike, Commissioner, United States Atomic Energy Commission, Washington, D. C.

Exhibits of school materials, equipment, and supplies.

Exhibit Hall
10 A.M.-
10 P.M.

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SECTION

Presiding: **Harold B. Brooks**, Principal, George Washington Junior High School, Long Beach, California; Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Addresses: WHAT KIND OF INTERGROUP EDUCATION?

Hilda Taba, Director, Center for the Study of Intergroup Relations, Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

ADMINISTERING A PROGRAM OF INTERGROUP EDUCATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

Helen Dernbach, Director of Curriculum and Co-ordinator of Intergroup Education, School City of South Bend, South Bend, Indiana.

Michael J. Eck, Principal, Thomas A. Edison Occupational School, Cleveland, Ohio.

Discussion

SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE SECTION

Presiding: **Joseph B. Chaplin**, Principal, Bangor Senior High School, Bangor, Maine; Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Addresses: USING TESTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

Francis L. Bacon, Professor of Secondary Education, School of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, California; formerly Superintendent, Evanston Township Schools, and

Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois.
Chairman, Committee on Testing and Guidance, National
Association of Secondary-School Principals.

THE EDUCATIONAL TESTING SERVICE—ITS PROGRAMS AND PLANS.
Henry Chauncey, President, Educational Testing Service,
Princeton, New Jersey.

**CHALLENGING DEVELOPMENTS IN THE ILLINOIS SECONDARY-SCHOOL
CURRICULUM PROGRAM.**

C. W. Sanford, Director, Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum
Program and Co-ordinator of Teacher Education, University
of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

Discussion

Exhibit Hall
8:30 A.M.-
6:00 P.M.

Exhibits of school materials, equipment, and supplies.

ANNUAL BANQUET

Dinner tickets, \$4.50 (no additional charge). Limited reservation.
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Saturday
February 26
Gold Room
7:00 P.M.

Presiding: *Clarence E. Blume*, Principal, Central High School,
Minneapolis, Minnesota; President, National Association
of Secondary-School Principals.

Music: Choir, Bowen High School, Chicago, Illinois.
Clayton Fox, Conductor.

Addresses: **EDUCATION FOR A WORLD AT PEACE.**
Harold E. Stassen, President, University of Pennsyl-
vania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

**THE CHALLENGE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN POSTWAR
ENGLAND.**

Mervyn W. Pritchard, Education Officer, British Em-
bassy, Washington, D. C.; formerly of the British
Ministry of Education, London, England.

8:30 P.M.

A limited number of seats may be available for those who cannot
attend the banquet. Seats for speaking program will not be available
until 8:30 P.M. Members, \$1; nonmembers, \$3 registration badge.

**BREAKFAST
MEETING**
Sunday
February 27
Congress Hotel
8:00-10:30 A.M.

Breakfast meeting of presidents, secretaries, and co-ordinators
state high-school principals' associations.

[Continued on page 169.]

Preface

INTERGROUP Education in Co-operating Schools is a project which was sponsored by the American Council on Education from January, 1945, to September, 1948. It has been a joint undertaking by the project staff and teachers in co-operating public schools, developing new materials, new approaches, new techniques, and new ways of mobilizing both school and community resources, toward improving human relations and fostering intergroup understanding.

This project was made possible by financial support provided, through the American Council on Education, by the National Conference of Christians and Jews on the recommendation of its Commission on Educational Organizations. The objects of the study were of as deep concern to the supporting agency and to the American Council on Education as they were to the staff and the co-operating schools. By mutual agreement, however, responsibility for the choice of particular activities, for the carrying out of research, and for administration generally was delegated to the Director of the project, to her staff, and to the participating schools.

The project staff has served in a consultant capacity. We have, therefore, found it wise not to emphasize specialties either in program building or in staff functions. Thus, while major competencies of the staff include literature, child development, social psychology, social studies, school-community relations, curriculum and evaluation, these resources have all been brought to bear on each enterprise carried on in the co-operating schools.

This principle has applied to publication also. While one individual may have had responsibility for the writing of each pamphlet, the work represented the combined efforts of the staff as a whole and numerous teachers in many co-operating schools. Hilda Taba and Elizabeth Hall Brady carried the major responsibility in the present instance. The ideas and approaches illustrated represent the work of the whole staff team, who planned this booklet and supplied materials. Margaret M. Heaton, Marie M. Hughes, Francis W. Marburg, and Herbert K. Walther also have been staff members of Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools. Esther Milner assisted in the editing of the manuscript; Arthur D. Wright and Frank Norton, in the analysis and organization of data.

Curriculum in Intergroup Relations is issued in two editions. It appears as **THE BULLETIN OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS** and as the fourth title in the **Work in Progress Series** of the

American Council on Education. *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*, *Literature for Human Understanding*, and *Sociometry in Group Relations* are the previous publications in this series. These books describe ideas, tools, and procedures, which are by no means perfected. They are issued in order to enable further experimentation and, to this end, to make what one group of teachers has done available to others. As the work of the project on Intergroup Education proceeded, curriculum materials began to develop. Many of these were first plans for instruction; others combined several revisions of these plans with records of classroom experiences, materials from pupils, and data from diagnostic instruments used in classrooms. *Curriculum in Intergroup Relations* attempts to sample these practices, to illustrate the common ideas and philosophy about intergroup relations and about curriculum planning, as well as to describe the variations from one situation to the next. It is our hope that these descriptive case studies can convey some helpful suggestions on what can be involved in curriculum planning in this new, hopeful field.

By agreement with the co-operating schools, the quoted passages from reports of teachers, their outlines and plans are not annotated in the text. We regret that it is impossible to list the names of the many teachers who contributed ideas and raw materials. However, we wish to acknowledge their contributions and especially thank the following school staffs from whose work quoted examples have been used:

CLEVELAND, OHIO: *Thomas Edison Occupational School*

DENVER, COLORADO: *Gove Junior High School*

HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT: *New Park Avenue School*

HINSDALE, ILLINOIS: *Junior and Senior High Schools*

MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA: *South and West High Schools*

PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA: *Girls Vocational High School (Irwin Avenue Unit)*

ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI: *Vashon High School*

SOUTH BEND, INDIANA: *Central, James Whitcomb Riley, and John Adams High Schools; Linden, Muessel, and Nuner Junior High Schools*

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS: *University of Chicago Laboratory Schools*

HILDA TABA, Director

Center for the Study of Intergroup Relations

[Formerly: *Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools*]

University of Chicago

February, 1949

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THE CONTENTS OF THIS BULLETIN ARE LISTED IN "EDUCATIONAL INDEX"

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

PAUL E. ELICKER, Executive Secretary

PAUL E. ELICKER, Editor.

WALTER E. HESS, Managing Editor

GERALD M. VAN POOL, Director of Student Activities

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Introduction

AS the work of the Intergroup Education Project proceeded, tangible results began to materialize. Many of these were plans for instruction at different stages of completeness and different levels of perfection. Each, however, illustrated the integration of those ideas about intergroup relations which it was important to teach and to practice in classrooms and ideas about how to plan curriculum, how to project teaching sequences, and how to provide most adequately for meaningful learning.

These case studies are limited to the secondary level, primarily because they are to appear as a bulletin of the National Association of the Secondary-School Principals. They also are concentrated in the social studies or in combinations of social studies and English. The work itself included more areas: some explorations in civics, home economics, science, art and music courses, and a good deal of work in literature. None of the work in science or civics had progressed to a point where it could be used as a clear illustration of curriculum construction. For that reason projects in these fields have been explored. Only a few examples were chosen from the field of literature and English because some descriptions of such programs appear in a previous publication.¹

This uneven sampling partly reflects some of the principles which guided the work of the project staff. They had not decided ahead of time which areas would lend themselves best to intergroup education, nor did they plot in advance the focal ideas or the organization of content and learning sequences and expect teachers to take them over whole. Always, work began within the framework of the existing course of study in each school and at the point where teachers expressed a desire to work and where both teachers and the project staff could see possibilities for exploration. Inevitably, therefore, there remain important areas of curriculum where no or only very sketchy explorations have been made. The success of the procedures adopted in the replanning of instruction in content areas that were explored convinced us that these and related procedures described in the following pages will prove fruitful when applied to new subjects and new areas of content.

It will become clear to the reader that all the case studies represent explorations within the usual course outlines. No separate courses in human rela-

¹ See The Staff of Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools, *Literature for Human Understanding* (Washington: American Council on Education, February, 1948).

tions or intergroup relations are given. This omission, too, was deliberate. It was the viewpoint of the staff that intergroup education could be effective only as it was interwoven with the total curriculum as a new emphasis and as new concepts. To add a separate course or a unit would appear to be educationally indefensible as it would more than likely result in inconsistent learnings developing side by side.

The plan for this bulletin incorporates two sequences. The first three chapters are organized around three fundamental steps in curriculum revision: diagnosing needs, selecting and organizing content, selecting and organizing learning experiences.² Evaluation might have been included as a separate section, but the descriptions of diagnosis and teaching procedures seemed to include sufficient material on techniques of evaluation as the latter were carried on continuously with instruction as to warrant the omission of such a section.

The next three chapters concentrate on certain features of teaching which the intergroup project staff has found to be especially crucial in human relations programs: the use of sensitizing experiences, the development of human relations skills, and the use of classroom techniques which enhance group methods of learning, such as discussion patterns and committee work.

The last chapter recapitulates the method of working by sequential steps, in order to make clear that new plans for instruction did not materialize full-blown in a short time and without struggle. This discussion has been included to help ward off disappointment on the part of those who expect a teacher committee to "produce" a new curriculum in two or three months. Also, it should be reassuring to those who, having taken their first steps, see no world-shaking results; or, who, having met their first difficulties, decide that they are not so inventive as those whose finished work is here described and, therefore, decide to give up trying. It should be remembered that no really new patterns of curriculum can emerge without at least two conditions: (1) experimentation should be carried out side-by-side with paper planning; (2) sufficient time should be allowed for "playing" with ideas before making the decision to outline any units or courses of study. In the most successful projects, usually at least a year of fairly continuous work was spent on planning tentative schemes together; another year, in tentative exploration with one classroom; and a third year, in reworking both the outline itself and the needed classroom techniques.

² See, Hilda Taba, "General Technique of Curriculum Planning," Chapter V, in *American Education in the Postwar Period, Part I*, Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945).

Each chapter is introduced with an illustration from the same school. This was done to give a continuous picture of one program from step to step; otherwise, the descriptions might have acquired a somewhat repetitive character. In this manner, we hoped to present an analytical picture of curriculum planning, and, at the same time, show the continuity of such planning.

A word must be said about the way in which these case-studies are presented. Much space is devoted to detailed reports of how things were done. The theoretical considerations are interspersed at intervals in the form of comments and are nowhere brought together in a systematic form. It was thought this might make reading easier and the understanding of the relevant theory and philosophy more certain. This method, incidentally, was the one through which the co-operating teachers were able to acquire whatever theory they did acquire: doing a piece of work and then elaborating whatever general principles were pertinent to it.

This volume is intended primarily for the curriculum makers and for the teachers who see the need for programs in intergroup relations but feel the need to acquire some concrete methods before proceeding.

CHAPTER I

How to Discover Needs Relevant to Group Relations

THE educational principle that curriculum and instruction should be related to the needs of pupils is an old and accepted one. Although a philosophy concerning provision for needs prevails, the methods for obtaining evidence from which to determine needs are often defective or even nonexistent. Certainly there have been few methods that lent themselves to use with their own pupils by teachers who can devote only a small part of their time to research. Teachers have usually had to rely on such generalized discussions of pupils' needs as are given in studies of adolescent development, in psychology, and in sociology, without being clear on how these generalized concepts apply to their own students. The result is that relatively little is done in practice to implement the philosophy concerning needs.

The emergence of intergroup relations as an important area of educational concern gave a new urgency to the problem of assessing pupil needs. With no previous traditions to go by in selecting content and learning experiences for this area, teachers came face to face with the problem of how to determine what should be taught and how to go about teaching it.

Some wondered what the special needs were in group relations. Others assumed unquestioningly that certain things were important to teach everyone, such as that one should become aware of peoples in foreign countries or that minority groups had made certain contributions to the American culture. The frequency with which people reported that "we have no problems here" revealed how limited were their notions of what constituted an intergroup problem and, therefore, of what represented a need which education might meet. Even when greater awareness of group relations problems had created a general sense of what was needed, definite techniques for securing the required specific information were lacking. This was true for example, of teachers who were aware that in their own classes there were many pupil

groups that related themselves to each other in peculiar ways, but who were not sure on what bases these groupings were formed and held together or what behaviors and values they generated and supported.

Other teachers felt that their pupils needed "more maturity" in their insights into "what makes people behave as they do." These teachers wanted to know how to assess the "maturity" of their pupils. They wanted more clearly to know what their pupils already understood, what concepts or misconceptions governed their insights, and what feelings and reactions they attached to particular individual and group behaviors.

Still other teachers felt that their pupils must be learning from some source, the social behaviors and values they exhibited, but they did not know how to discover the atmosphere, the conditions, and the attitudes regarding human relations that their pupils were subjected to in home and community.

Such knowledge, they thought, would not only give them greater understanding of their pupils but also help them decide what these pupils should learn next and in which particular ways.

During the course of the Intergroup Education project, several ways to diagnose needs were developed. These included ways of assessing the patterns of association in peer groups and of social values on which these associations rested and which they, in turn, created. Others were related to assessing the traditions, customs, and feelings which prevailed in the home and in the community. Still others were designed to determine the quality, nature, and level of pupil insights, concepts, and attitudes.

Some methods, such as home interviews, had to be used as specific diagnostic measures apart from instruction. Many others, especially the open questions, were used as integral parts of classroom instruction.

Some served mainly diagnostic purposes. Others carried a triple function: to tell teachers something about pupils but, at the same time, to enlarge their vision of what the problems in intergroup relations were and of what the scope of education in this field might be.

In all cases, study techniques were adapted to the demands of the local situation, which was analyzed to determine the nature of the program; the amount of time, talent, and energy available; and the capacity of the group working on a given project to translate ideas and findings into active programs. For this reason, the methods and techniques used had to be simple and informal enough to be readily learned and used by teachers. It was also important that these methods yield relevant information without requiring complex procedures for summarizing and interpreting. The more revealing

the data were, even in their "raw state," the more widely useful they tended to be as "eye openers" to teachers who secured them.

Furthermore, whatever data were obtained, they had to preserve the dynamics of behavior and attitudes and the realistic details of actual human relations. It is in these aspects that the most stimulation for program changes was found, yet it is these whole-situation factors that tend to disappear in the usual summaries of data. Their omission was the chief reason that teachers could not find in such data roads back to action programs or direction for what content to use or what learning experiences to provide.

To provide for the above considerations, it was necessary to sacrifice to some extent scientific accuracy and thoroughness in the usual research sense, especially so far as the data from any one school were concerned. This difficulty was corrected somewhat by the fact that some of the most basic techniques were repeated in many schools and on several grade levels. This permitted a more methodical development of the conclusions than was possible in a single situation.

This section will accordingly be devoted to a description of the ways in which teachers and groups of teachers in several schools went about the task of determining pupil needs in the area of human relations. Each account will supply some description of method and some sampling of findings.

PUPILS' SOCIAL LIVING

The teachers in one school—let us call it Tower School—started to look at the nature of their pupils' relationships. The school had a friendly atmosphere and cared about the happiness of its pupils. To all appearances there were no difficulties in personal relations. The school was in reality well above average in this respect; but as teachers' insights regarding human relations grew, their expectations regarding the quality of interpersonal and intergroup relations grew also.

At the beginning of the project, it had been assumed that there were scarcely any serious group relations problems. As a matter of fact, the school staff were a bit puzzled about why they had entered the study and were a bit embarrassed that they did not have any "real juicy" problems to offer. However, they were worried about the Jewish pupils who were facing and fearing the cliques in the high school which they entered from Tower, and they wished to prepare them for this ordeal. Thus came about the sociometric study of pupils' relations which has been part of the school's diagnostic procedure ever since.

The ninth-grade teachers gave, during the first few weeks of school, sociometric questions which enabled the pupils to choose which three others they would like to sit near or share a locker with.¹ Answers were analyzed in the effort to discover which pupils were highly chosen and which were practically unchosen; whether there were cliques which stayed together through mutual choice and other groups which were groups because of isolation; whether boys and girls ever chose each other; whether newness to the school influenced the choice; and whether the economic and social patterns in the general community affected these choices.

The analysis of these sociograms revealed that there was a strong tendency to form closed cliques in far greater numbers than pleased the staff. Some pupils were completely isolated; few were actively rejected. There was a greater distance between boys and girls than was common for this age group. Furthermore, the so-called home-room groups, which stayed together with the same teacher for two hours a day for three years were themselves found to represent closed groups. There was a "we" feeling in these home-room groups, accompanied by some degree of competitive hostility towards other home-room groups even on the same grade level. Observations of and conversations with individual pupils revealed a few individual cases of heartbreak because of rejections practiced in the pupil society.

The existing prestige lines became clearer also. For example, in connection with discussing the highly accepted pupils, the staff compared the membership of various school activities groups. It turned out that the "best" pupils were members of such commonly accepted prestige activities as the branches of student council, while the lunchroom clean-up squad was exclusively composed of pupils from the nearby orphanage and from a newly attached, rather remote, and not too well respected neighborhood. There was a fad of concentrating on "the" lead boy or girl and making a mystic ritual of popularity. Apparently in each group there were "leaders," or recognized popular individuals. These pupils appeared to have acquired their positions on the basis of "natural qualities," but also in part through the "leader myth." Anyone who had acquired a position of attention through being elected to office, through having a role in assembly, through an athletic feat was immediately lifted into popularity, to which position other students paid homage. Anecdotes and observations following the sociogram recorded some

¹ See, Helen Hall Jennings and Staff of the Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools, *Sociometry in Group Relations: A Work Guide for Teachers* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1948) for a fuller demonstration of this method.

personal tragedies. New people had a hard time and some said so outright. (One girl who had been in many schools declared Tower was the hardest in which to fit.) Incidents of parents forbidding association on the grounds of religious or economic differences were uncovered. A daughter of a Protestant minister was forbidden by her father to associate with a "nice Jewish girl."

As they examined the reasons for acceptance and rejection, it became evident that academic ability, athletic prowess, skill at social games, and mastery of social graces were dominant in producing acceptance. This raised questions of how pupils "get that way," how all pupils could learn the skills needed for acceptance in the school community, and also how to expand the present basis for acceptance which seemed rather narrow to the staff. Surely there were other qualities which should be the basis for friendships and other talents which should qualify people for leadership roles and for acceptance by the group, they said.

After discussing these data, teachers began noticing what was happening in work groups and committees that were made up by the pupils on a voluntary basis. Friends insisted on working with each other and often refused to work with anyone else. Clique "wars" were reflected in classroom discussions, when certain groups usually attempted to argue each other down, no matter what the merits of the proposed ideas might be. This suggested not only needed changes in the composition of work groups in order to get pupils to learn to work with a variety of people, but also reconsideration as to the procedure for discussion—such as arriving at judgments and generalizations more reasonably with greater emphasis on developing a factual basis before attempting to judge. In other words, the staff began to see how the association patterns affected, and in turn were affected by, certain grouping traditions in the school as well as instructional practices. It was evident that these school practices needed to be modified to bring about change in the pupils.²

At this point, it became obvious to Tower's staff that, in order to understand the social patterning in the school, some assessment of the economic level and the social status patterns prevailing in the community which their school served was needed. The school staff had always assumed that the community's population was a stable one, chiefly professional in occupation and of high income level. One research approach chosen was to obtain in-

² See, Elizabeth Hall Brady, "Education for Leadership," *The Journal of Educational Sociology* (New York: Payne Educational Sociology Foundation, Inc., May, 1948) for further discussion of this point.

information on parental occupation and place of residence from the entrance data of all pupils entering the school in one year (1945) and then to plot this material on a map of the community. The completed plot-map revealed not only that there were different types of neighborhoods within the community, but also that the school's population was not concentrated in a high economic district to as great a degree as had been supposed. In fact, the majority of the pupils were found to come from neighborhoods considered economically low.

As the listed occupations were grouped and analyzed, it became clear that only a small portion of the pupils came from homes of "above average" income. A large number were sons and daughters of semiskilled workers, small shop-owners, and even some unskilled workers, whose incomes the staff judged to be well below that which they had assumed. Apparently the largest proportion of pupils came from homes of professional people with an annual income judged to be ranging from \$3600 to \$4000 annually and from homes of skilled or semiskilled workers with an annual income ranging from \$2400 to \$3600. These findings raised several further questions in the minds of the school staff, questions which might otherwise never have occurred to them: Which of their present pupils lived in the wealthiest neighborhood and which of them lived in the poorest? Do difficulties arise among pupils in relation to school practices involving money, such as level of contributions to Community Chest and Red Cross fund drives set by pupils? Do strains exist because of the standards of dress considered acceptable by the school? What can the school do to alleviate possible pressures of this kind?

The data on the map also showed doubt on the impression the staff had had about the nature of the various neighborhoods. They had thought of their school district as composed of more or less distinctly uniformly "good" and "less good" neighborhoods, as far as quality of housing, economic level, and education of parents were concerned. In staff meetings, certain sections were described as "home ownership" districts; others, as places with multiple dwelling, *etc.* It became evident that this pattern did not exist and that it was important to find out what the actual pattern was. Otherwise, the inferences they made about the location of their pupils in the community were bound to be inaccurate. For this reason, four teachers set out at a later date to visit the various districts and to interview some individuals about the conditions in each neighborhood. They tried to note the physical appearance and to get some information on economic status, community

consciousness, and social value patterns. Such information as they obtained is here summarized according to four sections of the community.²

In the northwest section the houses are mostly two-story, one-family homes. There are also a number of former large one-family homes which have been converted into multiple dwellings by families whose children have grown up and left home. This change has not led to visible deterioration since the new persons moving in are of the same socio-economic class as are the older residents. One of the persons interviewed felt it to be one of the most desirable neighborhoods. No definite information was obtained on economic status, but one would guess it to be chiefly a professional group. The people seem to be well satisfied with their neighborhood and circumstances. They are not "climbers." The children of high school and college age are attending school. Only fifteen Jewish families reside in this area.

In the southwest section the homes are small and unpretentious but well-kept. Occupancy here is more stable than in the northwest section since the residents are chiefly home-owners who were forced to buy to avoid eviction. There has been little change in the appearance of the neighborhood in the last ten years. Only one sub-standard home is noticed. The people seem to be largely skilled or semiskilled workers. In many cases, both parents work. They seem to be church-centered rather than community-centered; that is, social life seems to center largely in church organizations. Many are members of a little Baptist mission, a temporary semibasement structure. These church people are planning to build a new structure. There do not seem to be any outstanding leaders here, either men or women. Most parents desire high-school education for their children, but the lure of a job leads many of the youngsters to leave school and go to work. The residents are "thrifty, stalwart, substantial middle-class people who take pride in their homes." The people get along well together and their children are "well-behaved."

The northeast section is an older neighborhood, although there is an occasional new house here and there. Many of the most beautiful and pretentious homes in the city are located here. The district is restricted now. The houses were built before the rise in building costs. There is little business encroachment. The highest economic status groups of our community live here, and money and social amenities mean much to them. Everyone here "lives his own life." No one is interested in his neighbors. Only the older people get together now and then for family parties. There is hardly any community organization. Families consist of from one to three children, no more. Parents are extremely ambitious for their children. They encourage them, if not drive them, to get everything that will assure them a social position in the community. They are rushed madly from one lesson to another.

The southeast area is only ten years old and is restricted by "gentlemen's agreement." About one third of the homes are built on "filled ground." There is so much space between houses that the residents are actually isolated physically from one another. This section "has little civic spirit." There are few churches. However, a pastor was more charitable in his evaluation of the residents of the eastern section than

² This is an informal summary, not a result of a systematic study. It was used mainly to bring to light some questionable assumptions and to raise questions about some indices the staff had used to determine or to describe the "social background" of their pupils. It was also a training ground for teachers to observe their community in ways other than those practiced by the usual studies.

the above description indicates. He said that people are always ready to give money and time to worthy causes. Racial prejudice exists. Pupils on the playground divide into Jewish and Gentile groupings. Here the parents assume more responsibility for their children; otherwise the general value-attitudes are the same as in the northeast section.

The chief value of this observation trip was to break down generalized notions about the community and to induct teachers into the method of using community informants. However, several interesting leads came from pieces of incidental information gathered on the trips. One section, with tidy little houses, left the impression of economic security; however, the real estate man said that these homes were quite a financial strain on their owners and that payments were difficult. This raised a question about the usual assumptions of the connection between "nice" homes and the social and psychological security of their inhabitants. The teachers wondered which of their pupils were under strain because their parents were striving for a pattern of living that might be a bit beyond their financial means and social interests. This probing suggested a new interpretation of the frequent music lessons, for example, that the teachers had noticed in their analysis of pupils' diaries of a typical week's activities.

Another assumption which the school staff had held was that the community was quite stable, that most of the children had grown up in the district and had attended elementary schools in the city, if not in the same district. On this assumption, the teachers had not paid much attention to the problem of orientation to the school, except to acquaint the pupils with the physical plant and the special rules, regulations, and procedures of the junior high school as different from the elementary schools. In order to check on this belief, they asked the pupils to list in how many places they had lived as far back as they could remember. The teachers were amazed to discover that only ten out of 150 had not moved at all. In one class of thirty-two the average number of residence changes was five. Only one third of the families had lived in the city throughout the child's lifetime. Over one fourth of the pupils had lived in several states. The highest number of moves was fifteen; no pupil was living in the same house that his family was occupying at the time of his birth.

This meant that the problem of adjustment was broader than adjusting to a new plant and a new level school. There must be, the staff assumed, many "human relations adjustments," including many feelings of insecurity that come from frequent changes of schools and of residences. In order to obtain evidence for this assumption, assignments of free writing were given

in English classes. Pupils were asked to describe occasions when they felt strange, left out, or otherwise fearful of new situations.

One such paper entitled "I Felt That I Wasn't As Good" from a ninth-grade pupil is included here as an example of the kind of material obtained through this assignment.

When we first moved to this city, I had my first contacts with Jewish people. I set right out at school just seeming not to notice that they were any different at all. There was a Jewish girl in grade school who was my seat mate. After getting acquainted a little, we discovered that we lived in the same block. We decided to walk to school together. The first time I was in her home I felt that I just wasn't present as far as her parents were concerned. I felt exactly like a piece of furniture. My friend's father ignored me past a rather hasty glance which probably assured him I was no one and he could go on about his business. He didn't speak at all. Her mother acknowledged my friend's introduction. Then she looked me up and down and asked a few curt questions. It was quite obvious that her mind was completely detached from the conversation. When I took this girl into my home, much the same thing happened. I could tell that she felt out of place. Neither of us said anything to the other, but there was a bond of understanding about the matter between us. This happened about three years ago. For about two years, my Jewish friend and I remained close, but we seldom entered each other's homes. When our parents were gone, we would often get together. Today this girl is one of my best friends. She doesn't attend very many of our social gatherings and I go to none of hers, but even so we are very intimate friends. I realize that her parents still look down on me to a certain extent because I am of a different religion, but I have gotten used to the feeling and I accept it. In my opinion the Jewish people and the Gentiles will never get along any better than they do now until they both give in a little. They must both realize that no religion is superior to any other.

Other papers described fear of new groups, anxieties about being left out, and some rather harsh methods of "exclusiveness" prescribed by this child society in its informal associations which had not been observed by teachers in the more formal class situations.

From these papers, it developed that many a pupil lived in fear of not having a close companion, a fact which began to explain the phenomenon of closed cliques observed in sociometric investigations. It seemed, also, that the pupils were more lacking in social skills necessary for making their way in new groups and that their insights into the "ways of group life" were more meager than the staff had realized.

The community survey, data on student mobility, and the papers on "Why I Felt Left Out," taken together, provided some background for a re-analysis of the choice patterns noted in the sociometric data. It became apparent, for example, that the spirit of small, exclusive groups in

the school had been supported by a similar type of social association and expectation in the community. As adults regarded each other as "good" and "bad" people, so their children also tended to do. In other words, kindly as the general atmosphere seemed to be, the *mores* established in a community in which so many people were anxious to "make the grade" introduced certain snobberies, rigidities of codes, pressures to "belong," which tended to foster undemocratic practices among the pupils and even to affect ways in which student leadership functioned and how people were elected.

The extent to which the school's social patterns were an extension of the general community's social patterns was striking to the teachers; they were accustomed to considering the school an isolated community sufficient unto itself. They began to see how the community *mores* affected school *mores*, and in turn to see where the school had an obligation to make changes in or to supplement their own activities in order to counterbalance this interlocking effect.

This information revealed several avenues for immediate action as well as for some further studies. It was obvious, for example, that something needed to be done about the lack of diversified experience with people, as shown by the dependence on cliques and other closed association patterns inside population groups as well as between them. Teachers began plotting more carefully the composition of committees and other work and play groups in order to extend each pupil's familiarity with others, to enhance his ability to associate with diverse types of persons, and to make a more secure place for those who at present stood on the fringes of the school society.

Observations began in lunchroom and playground as to the nature of boy-girl association, and what produced the apparently heightened sex cleavage or sex distance (which it was, the staff were not too sure). The possible traditions that led to it were examined. By these means, many things were discovered. These pupils played on separate playgrounds, as most of them had done in elementary school. Boys and girls, for some unaccountable reason, had always elected representatives separately. In the lunchroom, boys and girls "of their own choice" sat at separate tables as they tend to do in many schools.

Out of these discoveries grew additional plans to remedy the situation. Cross-class groups took charge of assembly program planning. Re-seating experiments were started in the lunchroom. Some games were devised that induced boys and girls to play together. The staff began analyzing stu-

dent government patterns—which at a later date produced plans for re-educating pupils and leading them to organize the plans and procedures for electing and for allocating leadership functions. Groundwork was laid for the reconsideration of the whole orientation unit—the unit which consumed the first half year of the seventh-grade program—which was completed two years later.

At many points in digesting and applying the preceding information, questions arose about the level of social experience and the social maturity of these pupils. The assumption that economically privileged homes automatically meant superior opportunity for social development began to be questioned. To throw some light on this point, the staff asked the pupils to keep a diary by half-hour intervals of all the things they did during one week, including the week-end.⁴ They were also asked to record with whom and where they carried on these activities. This was given as an English assignment and as an experiment in diary keeping.

The summary and analysis of these diaries began to fill in the atmosphere of family living. Some value-patterns were reflected in the daily routines and in the explanations for the choice of activities. The pupils from the more economically privileged homes seemed to accept the family circle as the center of their fairly simple and repetitious activities. They seemed to be well provided for physically and to take such provision for granted. Many of their activities seemed to be solitary. They participated socially with a few close friends; there seemed to be comparatively few occasions for participation in activities with a well-organized association group, either child or adult. This pattern began to explain some of the sociometric findings: lacking opportunities for wider association with peers, a child may find his own small clique a social necessity. The family did not appear to participate as a total unit often.

Upon arriving home from school on a typical workday, most of these youngsters either did their homework or some other activity, such as shopping, taking music lessons, going to the occasional doctor's appointment, practicing, visiting—or just "sitting around." Boys with paper routes delivered their papers. Girls sometimes helped with the preparation of an early supper and later with the dishes. The meal was a family affair. After supper, if their homework was done, these pupils usually listened to the radio, read a book, played games with a sibling or, less frequently,

⁴ See, Francis W. Marburg, "Studying the Child's Social World," *The Journal of Educational Sociology* (New York: Payne Educational Sociology Foundation, Inc., May, 1948) for further description of diaries and methods of summarizing them.

with their parents. An occasional evening movie was allowed. On Saturdays, girls helped with the housework in the morning and then went to an afternoon movie, watched a game or parade, or went shopping. A few went to an evening activity such as a party or dance. Boys usually engaged in some peer activity in the early afternoon and delivered their papers in the late afternoon. Sunday might involve Sunday school, visiting, driving, movies, or some other activity with the entire family.

Many parents made a practice of driving their children to their activity centers: to school, church, friends' homes, parties, dances, baby-sitting assignments. Perhaps they did this as a matter of convenience for the child—or perhaps they liked to keep a fairly close watch over their children.

It is interesting to contrast the week's activities typical of this group of "white-collar" children with the activities found to be typical of children of "working-class" families. Many mothers of the latter social group worked and had less time to devote to household duties. Many of these duties devolved upon their daughters: meal preparation, housecleaning, child care, errands, shopping, and these at times showed signs of becoming burdensome, time-consuming chores at a relatively early age for these girls. In comparison, the girls first described seemed to participate very little in the functions necessary to life.

The recreation patterns seemed to be different for the boys in particular. When the boys of the first group did not have a paper route, they tended to fall into the stay-at-home pattern of their sisters. The boys of the "working-class" group participated far more in street-corner and open-lot games and activities in their free time; much less parental supervision was evident. Both boys and girls of the "white-collar" group tended to complain of the "same old routine" of their days; they seemed to consider one day very much like the next. This feeling was not encountered to nearly the same extent among the children of the other social groups.

From this diary material, certain needs of the first group of children which should be taken into account by the school program became evident to their teachers. It was clear that children of the more economically privileged social groups were given little opportunity at home to plan for and control their own activities—that is, to take responsibility. The staff saw that the school program should thus be planned to provide many opportunities for pupils to take responsibility. Further, because of the trend to a small, close family circle and a small, close friendship circle, these children could not help but have what may be termed parochial attitudes toward other

groups: their association patterns and their opportunities for sharing experiences with other types of persons were too limited. The school saw that it should, therefore, provide broader association experiences for these pupils.

While the sociograms, the immediately subsequent observations, the interviews, and the assignments of free writing and diaries provided the initial start to discovering the "needs" of these pupils, the analysis continued over a few years as part of the instructional program. All kinds of opportunities were seized upon to diagnose pupil attitudes, stereotypes, and misconceptions through devices which could be made an integral part of the teaching-learning process. For example, one of the important tasks in connection with the study of intergroup relations is to dispel pupils' stereotyped notions of people and countries unfamiliar to them. Since such stereotypes tend to be different in different communities and different social groups, it is important to diagnose the particular ones held by a pupil group before deciding what a particular curriculum is to accomplish and on which points the greatest emphasis is needed.

As part of a UN program sponsored by the school system, the Art Institute set up exhibits on Mexico, Russia, Sweden, China, and India. Before the pupils saw these exhibits, they were asked to jot down their impressions of each of these countries. Analysis of the pupil papers revealed a number of trends. One was the tendency to think of the United States as very much advanced beyond any other country; this may have been because of their greater familiarity with their own country. Not until one can visualize oneself living in other countries does one begin to understand how the people of these countries actually do live. Aside from this over-all tendency, it was evident that the pupils' notions about Sweden and Russia were supported by more facts than those about India, China, and Mexico.

In regard to the latter countries, knowledge of the bizarre was preponderant over realistic knowledge of geographic features or of the people and their customs. None had any understanding of the meaning of cultural differences; the pupils interpreted the fact that people wore veils, turbans, and white robes and charmed snakes as play-acting or because these people were dramatic and mysterious by nature.

In the case of India, the backwardness of the people, jewels, religious groups, white robes, poverty, and starvation were mentioned most often. There was, however, no attempt at interpreting or relating any of these impressions. Geographically India seemed to be a blank to these pupils.

Similarly, although many geographic, economic, and political facts about Sweden and Russia were given, they were stated in a disconnected and unrelated fashion. They knew a great deal about Sweden's forests, the mountains, snow and ice and described its "tall blond" people in a positive way. They visualized Russia as mostly cold, full of snow, emphasized that it was a dictatorship and described the people in a largely negative way.

Mexico prompted the greatest amount of bizarre description. Their picture of this neighboring country was apparently derived largely from tourist advertising and information. Fiestas, laziness, sleeping under the trees, missions, the story of the conquistadors, bull fights, and highly spiced foods were cited in unrelated fashion.

These findings suggested where the instructional efforts might have to be placed. Disconnected geographic and historic information seemed, for example, less useful than it had before in developing "appreciation" of other people. These teachers thought they might instead concentrate on some features of life common to all humanity and pick the comparable and contrasting ways of achieving this common thing in various countries. They began to see how fiction might be used to introduce realistic details of lives of people different from themselves.

In a similar way, the pupils' attitudes and the extent of their understanding or misunderstanding of the lives of people in other countries and in other social groups were diagnosed through other papers assigned in their course in social studies. Topics such as planning a desirable life on an average budget, reactions of newcomers to the school, what kinds of problems are important in school, what are some of the problems of this modern age provided a great deal of illuminating information about pupil attitudes towards and understanding of other groups as well as of themselves.⁵

These data pointed up several needs which had not before seemed too important:

1. Since social experience is lacking, pupils need social contacts of many kinds with many types of people and in many situations where they can participate naturally and constructively.
2. Because tensions arise from feelings of superiority or inferiority due to economic or social position of the family, pupils need to find ways of controlling or getting rid of them.
3. Pupils need to learn that some satisfactions are gained through activities of a continuing nature, and they also need to learn the necessary skills.
4. Because pupils seem to be aware of few responsibilities, they need to learn to

⁵ See page 65 for further illustrations of the use of free writing assignments, or open assignments.

assume responsibility for the solution of problems about which they should feel concern.

5. Passive acceptance of plans, involving pupils' activities, points to a need for an appraisal of their own potentialities and for development of realistic ideas about them.

After careful examination of these needs, the teachers decided to strive for growth in the following understandings, attitudes, and skills as objectives:

1. Understanding that participation in groups which are responsible for planning and carrying out activities results in personal growth.
2. Knowledge that members of the group are interdependent and each accepts wholeheartedly all pupils as participants in common tasks and recreation.
3. Knowledge that a person should extend his experiences to include many types of interests, some of an on-going nature.
4. Awareness that there are many patterns of behavior.
5. Acceptance that one's duty as a citizen requires him to respect the rights and property of individuals separately and collectively.
6. Knowledge that there are many types of leadership, and leaders are chosen because of special competencies in relation to the purposes for which they are chosen.
7. Knowledge that cultures, institutions, and traditions are the result of the intermingling and fusion of many peoples from many lands.
8. Concern that inequalities of opportunities do exist among different racial, ethnic, and religious groups living in our own community.
9. Knowledge that the lives of people in our state are influenced by the nature of the land.
10. Understanding that people are what they are mainly because of the experiences they have had.
11. Feeling of concern for conditions which grow out of inequalities of opportunities existing among people of various groups.
12. Attitude of respect for cultures, institutions, and traditions of people and groups.
13. Sense of responsibility for functioning of the school groups.
14. Skill in participating in group processes.
15. Ability to judge people according to their competencies.
16. Ability to budget time and to develop habits of independent study so that tasks are completed with satisfaction to both pupil and teacher.
17. Skill in expressing ideas in various forms.

PROBLEMS OF FAMILY RELATIONS

A slightly different approach to assessing needs was used by an eighth-grade teacher in another city in a low economic neighborhood with a great many first- and second-generation families. During the preceding year, through her sociometric studies and her exploration into the use of fiction for guidance purposes, she had conceived the idea of using her guidance

course systematically to help her pupils understand better their own problems and to gain some skill in dealing with them. She had also found out from these studies that the areas of peer relations and family relations were of the greatest concern to her pupils. Her problem was to find out more definitely what type of problems they had in these areas, what specific insights they needed and which particular skills were most helpful to them, and how she could handle the class so that their very way of learning and studying would promote understanding of group relations.

One part of her diagnosis had to do with peer associations in which she used sociometric questions and interviewed pupils and parents. She asked the pupils which three people they wanted to sit with and which three people they wanted to work with on committees. Once the sociometric choices thus obtained were plotted, she was able to discover several group and individual problems. She was able, for example, to determine which pupils were not in close communication with the group by locating those who were social isolates and those who were actively rejected. She then located the pupils who were the natural leaders of the group; that is, those who were chosen by many others. As such, they had the most influence on others during discussions and could be a most valuable aid to her in her plan to have the isolated and rejected pupils come into closer contact with the group. Naturally, this information was invaluable to her in composing panels, committees, and all kinds of work groups in such a fashion as to maintain personal networks as well as to have personnel that would supplement each other in skills and leadership roles.

She was also able to discover from the sociogram along what social lines cleavage appeared, such as boy-girl cleavage, divisions by community residence-location, divisions by maturity of development or home background. She located those small groups which were such tight cliques that they offered no opportunity to others to join them, as well as those pupils who were chosen by pupils other than the ones they themselves had chosen; that is, they had no mutual choices.

She found that the small groups and "mutuals" who were drawn together frequently had certain characteristics in common. For instance, pupils who were quiet and reserved chose others like themselves in that respect. Pupils who came from homes which had given them careful training in social behavior chose others of similar background. The lively, mischievous pupil tended to choose others who were "fun" to be with. This latter type also tended, however, to choose quiet pupils who provided a good audience for

their "shenanigans." Pupils who were apt to "get into trouble just a little" either would not choose or would actually reject a pupil who "always gets into trouble." Pupils who were kind and helpful and thoughtful towards others were apt to be in leadership positions, surrounded by pupils who desperately needed such treatment. Pupils in a similar stage of development in regard to boy-girl relationships tended to cling together. Several girls were highly rejected as being "boy-crazy" by the rest of the group who themselves were not yet at that level of social development. Some girls were so afraid of behaving in a manner that was "not nice"—that would displease others, particularly adults—that they chose only "nice" pupils. At the opposite extreme, one boy rejected a clique of three girls because "they are too nice for me."

A list of these situations was made and several were explored further by sociodrama to discover what particular difficulties pupils had with each other and with their siblings. Those specific areas where they showed lack of understanding and social skills became the "problems" around which reading and discussion were later planned.

As a follow-up and as a means of discovering problems of family relations that the pupils were unable to analyze or even to sense, this same teacher interviewed the pupils' parents. Perhaps as a result of her careful advance planning for these interviews, she was able to obtain more understanding of individual problems which had already become apparent to her through her analysis of the class sociogram and her interviews with the pupils on the reasons they had made the choices they did.

She set up what might be termed a "guided interview" by using a series of questions formulated in advance. The first question, "How do you feel — is doing?" was sometimes the only one that she asked, since it alone prompted the parent to give freely the information the teacher desired. The remaining questions were asked at appropriate places in the conversation and only if no information on the area had been given voluntarily by the parent. Her complete list of questions⁶ was as follows:

1. How do you feel is doing?
2. What are your hopes and plans for your child in high school?
3. How do you try to arrange your child's playmates?
4. What worries you most about your child?
5. What gives you the most pleasure about your child?
6. How do you feel about the neighborhood? (The teacher found this was often

⁶ For a complete schedule for home interviews see Jennings, *op. cit.*, page 38.

a poor question since it sometimes prompted belligerence and at other times yielded no significant information).

7. What would you like to have us do for your child? Is there anything we are doing for your child that you would like us *not* to do?

Through these parent interviews, the teacher uncovered a wide range of individual problems:

Certain children who were rejected by their peers the teacher found to be rejected at home also. One mother said, "I'm waiting for the day he'll be sixteen. I can't stand it when he puts his arm around me." Others were kept by their parents from associating with other children who were in any important sense different. One child was not allowed to go to the community center because the children who attend were not considered "nice" by the child's parents. In many homes there was friction between the mother and father, and the children did not know what to make of it or how to deal with it.

Certain children were over-obedient both at home and at school because of their fear of not being accepted by their parents. Some of these restrained and obedient children came from homes with good feeling but with strong emphasis on restraint and conformity. Some of the parents were foreign-born and the family *mores* conflicted with their children's developing American *mores*, thus creating many difficulties which were often resolved in an autocratic and arbitrary manner by one side or the other.

Some children lived with a number of adult relatives, all with divergent personalities and divergent standards, a confusing and frustrating situation for the children. Some parents were protective and so over-anxious about their children's grades that nothing else about the child seemed to matter. Low grades were considered unforgivable. These children were under considerable tension. Other children had practically to "bring themselves up" from babyhood and were constantly apprehensive about doing something wrong.

In addition to the above two sources of information concerning her pupils' needs, several "compositions" were assigned on such topics as "What made me mad"; "What made me happy"; "What I like about my home"; and "How I would change my home." Cumulatively, these papers began to etch out the culture patterns which prevailed in these pupils' homes. The papers on homes, for example, were especially rewarding in that they revealed rather sharply the parent-child relationships and the feeling children had about them.⁷

Two points stood out: there was much arbitrary punishment, often because parents became angry. The children did not understand why they were being punished and regarded the punishment as no more than an arbitrary exercise of authority.

A frequent punishment technique used by parents (and greatly resented by the children) was to deprive their child of peer contacts—not allowing him to play with a friend, not letting him go to an informal peer get-together, for example. This information seemed especially significant when the teacher noticed how her pupils treated their younger brothers and sisters as they called for them to

⁷ It should be kept in mind that such highly personal questions and answers were used only after a long period had been devoted to developing rapport among pupils, and between them and the teacher. Learning to discuss personal concerns had also been consciously provided for.

take them home or to play. They tended to use the same methods that the papers on punishment had indicated their parents used: violence in language and behavior, arbitrary demands for obedience, and arbitrary punishments. They apparently seemed to think that it was now "their turn" to exercise authority and, knowing no other methods, applied the same ones to which they had been subjected.

From the information gleaned from these sources, the teacher began developing the topics for her guidance discussions. These she led by having pupils first read stories which illustrated the problems and difficulties her material had uncovered. The information she had obtained also helped her choose the books she read with the class or those her pupils read as their reading assignments (some fifty in all). For example, she chose the "Top of the Mountain" (from *The Teen-Age Companion*) as one of four stories and books she used to illustrate sibling relations—in this story the younger child is abused by the older one. She was quite surprised to find that no one identified himself with the younger child, and most pupils took the abusive behavior of the older brother for granted.

Many of them told of situations where they treated younger siblings the same way, and the teacher's observations had confirmed this. Obviously she had a job of re-education on her hands, both in improving present sibling relations and in preparing the pupils for future parenthood. Specifically, she wished to improve their perception of how younger brothers and sisters feel, and also to have them work out and practice more skillful ways of handling irritations caused by younger siblings. As it turned out, the pupils themselves began to exchange insights and learn from each other. One day, one of the girls turned to a boy in class who had complained about the attention given at home to his little sister and said,

Remember, Bill, when you were little you were the only one your mother had. She probably doesn't even give your little sister now as much attention as she gave you then. Do what I do. When your sister begs to go to the show with you, take her. But next time you go, tell her you took her last time; but this time you *need* to go alone, and you'll take her next time. I do that with my little brother, and we don't have any fights.

EMOTIONAL NEEDS AND HOME ATMOSPHERE

A slightly different method of delving into the "home culture" was employed by the teachers in a Negro school, in a segregated school system, when they decided to revise the general education program taught in the ninth grade. The program taught until that time had been derived from assumptions which the staff had made on the basis of several known facts. Many of their pupils came from broken homes—over half of the pupils had

only one parent or no parents at all. Most of the pupils came from a very low economic background and lived under poor housing conditions. From these facts, the teachers had assumed that the social deficiencies usually ascribed to pupils of such backgrounds were present in this case also. The ninth-grade program had placed a great deal of emphasis on the development of such "good middle-class" traits as courtesy, honesty, scholarship, neatness, cleanliness, and so on.

Before revising the program, the teachers decided to reassess these pupils' human relations needs. Among other things, they conducted a survey of their home conditions through the use of a series of open questions which included the following:

1. How many people live in your home with you?
2. How many of the people that you live with are related to you? What relationship?
3. What things about your home do you like?
4. What things about your home would you like to change?
5. What, if anything, are you especially happy about?
6. What, if anything, are you especially unhappy about or dissatisfied with?
7. What do you need and do not have in your neighborhood?

Analysis of the pupils' responses to these questions yielded results contrary to many of the teachers' preconceptions. The pupils' physical living conditions were much as the teachers had pictured. Many pupils lived in broken homes, and most of these with distant relatives or with grandparents, aunts, cousins, in addition to their mother or father. Most of them lived under crowded conditions and missed such physical amenities as running water, flush-toilets, stove, refrigerator, telephone, *etc.*

But the pupils' reactions to the emotional atmosphere of their homes and their picture of the role it played in their lives were not at all what their teachers had expected. Most of the pupils expressed satisfaction with the companionship afforded them by their home and with its over-all emotional atmosphere—the items expressing satisfaction with the home atmosphere were seven times as many as the items expressing dissatisfaction. The particular thing these pupils liked about their homes was the understanding accorded them by family members—their helpfulness, their tendency to grant them a certain degree of independence and freedom of choice. Examples: "Grandmother makes my friends feel at home when they visit." The children appreciated the presence of relatives—"extended kin"—in the home because this provided them with a number of persons by whom they felt

understood and to whom they could turn at any time for advice and emotional support.⁸

It was logical, then, that the things these pupils would have liked to change about their homes were chiefly of a physical nature—they referred to the overcrowding, to the lack of recreational facilities and public utilities in the neighborhood, occasionally to the noise in the neighborhood. The main things regretted about the home's members were the absence of some particular relative or the circumstance that the family had to work so hard to make a living.

Thus, although the status of these youngsters in the community, their job aspirations and their picture of themselves in the social scheme of things could be characterized as being at a low level, it was evident that their basic feelings of emotional support and security in the home were at a high level. (The findings of this informal study coincide closely with carefully planned and carried out research projects on the characteristics of the lower-class family.)

These pupils were, however, lacking something in their home of which they themselves were not conscious. They revealed this lack indirectly in papers they were asked to write: (1) What I like about myself, (2) What other people like about me, (3) What I dislike about myself, (4) What other people dislike about me. Their responses to these questions showed that they judged themselves and that others judged them in the light of a very limited set of values—the basis of judgment was almost exclusively physical-appearance standards. Such attributes as having nice eyes, nice legs, a nice smile were mentioned frequently.

It thus became apparent to the school staff that these pupils were exposed to social values and stimuli of a very different nature in their homes. The teachers realized that the school was not taking this fact sufficiently into account in the kinds of ideas and behavior it chose to emphasize; it had, in essence, been taking for granted the existence of things that did not exist and had been instructing and judging the pupils in the light of such nonexistent circumstances. The school's standards of behavior, of scholarship, and of aspiration were too abstract for these pupils because they were too far removed from their own life experience and understandings.

Before such standards could have any meaning for their pupils, it would be necessary to expose these pupils to experiences that would serve as

⁸ This is in contrast to another case cited above (p. 21) where the presence of many adult relatives created confusion for children by compelling them to live up to several different sets of expectations simultaneously.

motivation to extend their bases for understanding and judging themselves and others. To have any meaning or educational effect these learning experiences would have to be sufficiently close to previous experiences.

Having thus diagnosed the educational needs of the pupils, the school staff and the consultants of the Intergroup Education project together began exploring what could be done in general education to provide this extension of sensitivity and experience.

Fortunately, the topics already set for the course were adaptable to the kinds of emphases the staff were now interested in promoting. The area of "learning to get along with others," with its sub-areas of "getting along with my family," "getting along on the job," was still applicable. But two more areas were added when the use of sociodrama in another grade-group revealed that pupils felt keenly their inability to communicate and get along adequately with persons outside the family circle; problems of getting along with adults outside the home and problems of getting along with age-mates were accordingly added.

With age-mates the pupils had shown that they habitually used one of two "techniques" in a conflict situation. They either dropped the person as a friend or fought the conflict out on a verbal or physical level. A more extended understanding of how to deal with inter-personal disagreements, greater insight into the causes of disagreement, and knowledge of how to control them were all needed by the students.

LOOKING AT OLD FACTS IN A NEW LIGHT

Sometimes teachers can diagnose pupil needs without obtaining more information on the pupils than they already have; looking at old information from a new perspective can yield much useful diagnostic material. Three teachers were co-operatively developing a ninth-grade course, "Living More Effectively in the Community," which combined English, social studies, and home economics. Merely working together on the project and pooling what each already knew about the pupils led them to see the pupils in a different light and enabled them to identify pupil needs not previously recognized.

One unit of the course had to do with getting and holding a job. In assessing the present situation of these pupils, eighty per cent of whom were Negroes, the home economics teacher summed up what she had learned from contacts with her pupils:

Expectation of the worst is a part of their culture, as is the tendency to blame all slights they get on color and to feel that they often do not get a square deal. They feel, often with justification, that many people pick on them, that white teachers are sometimes partial to white pupils, that fighting (verbally and physically) is the best way to handle a problem, and that they are incapable of many achievements. They act on impulse and apparently consider the consequences of their acts unimportant as long as they can do what they please; in other words, they seem willing to pay. . . . They have very little idea about individual differences in ability to get things accomplished. They feel that we are unfair if one pupil is given a privilege he has earned if the others who have not earned it are not given it also. They think that all pupils should be treated alike at all times under all circumstances regardless of individual difference.

The three teachers were aware that in their community very few jobs or job training opportunities were open to Negroes. Frequently, pupils were turned away from jobs where "Negroes are not wanted." Many of them lost their jobs because they tended to interpret criticism or correction by an employer as prejudice and unfair abuse and to "blow up" or leave the job as a result. As the teachers went over their pooled data, they concluded that over and above the usual training in the skills needed in applying for a job and handling an interview, which had been the main emphasis of the course before, these pupils were in need of some special help, in their way of viewing their employer, in their response to criticism, and in their interpretation and handling of what they took to be "slights" related to their race.

One part of the unit was developed around objectives and understandings directly related to this problem in the following manner:

Understandings

1. Since employers provide the jobs for employees, it follows that employees ought to take directions with the best intent from the ones who give them.
2. All people have many vulnerable spots about some physical aspect of themselves, such as color of hair or size of feet, about speech, color of skin, nationality.
3. Persons respond in varied ways to apparent slights:
 - a. Some withdraw into themselves.
 - b. Some speak out.
 - c. Some fight back.
4. How we take slights has an effect on our personalities.
5. One way to play down our own "touchiness" is to build up the points that people often compliment.
6. Basic in our developing better relations to slights is the policy of finding out what is really going on before drawing any conclusions; thinking things through is a good policy.
7. Slightings can come even from those who like us most; we sometimes slight even those whom we like most.

8. Sights occur *within* racial and national groups as well as *between* groups.
9. Color is one basis of slight for people who are prejudiced or ignorant, but only one.

Another member of the team, the social science teacher, was working on a study of community services. In order to sample the services of greatest interest and of most use to pupils and in order to decide with which aspects of each service to deal, he summarized what they knew about the pupils and their relation to the services of their community. Some of the facts the teacher recalled were these:

Opportunities in this particular school community for hearing good lectures and entertainers have been very limited. The community lacks adequate recreational facilities. Many pupils complain about this.

Many pupils and their families have a nonco-operating, if not antagonistic, attitude toward representatives of various agencies and services, especially police.

This community has had difficulty in securing adequate services at times from community agencies. It is often slow, and sometimes not done at all. Many residents do not know by what procedures they can secure services, such as repair of broken street lamps, repair of holes in the street and sidewalks, cleaning out of sewers. Many residents in this neighborhood receive help from certain kinds of health and welfare agencies, but others who might benefit do not, often because they do not know how to request help, or what to do when they go to an agency.

There are many requests for night courses for adults.

The most immediate general needs in the area of community services appeared to be these: knowledge of how to use and how to acquire skills in using the services available to them; willingness to co-operate with services; familiarity with those services they most need; and a feeling that it is all right to receive the services of, for example, welfare agencies. With these considerations in mind, the teacher selected the following community services to deal with: agencies concerned with protecting life and property; agencies concerned with promoting and safeguarding health; agencies that promote education and recreation; agencies concerned with helping individuals or families who need help. He identified several agencies of each type, but dealt with only one or two in teaching the unit. For each agency, he chose those aspects which would do most to develop the desired skills and attitudes. For instance, the *police department* was selected as typical of the first type of agency listed. Study of it included a consideration of how police deal with traffic accidents; what police methods are; what kind of people are policemen; prevention *vs.* detection of crime. He tried throughout the course to reassess the needs he had identified at the beginning of the study.

A final illustration from the same course shows how continual reassessment sometimes brings about revision of identified needs, and is similar to the revision of viewpoint discussed in the preceding case.

The third area was family life. The teachers knew that many pupils lived in crowded homes and were of relatively low economic status. Many families were incomplete; in many, mothers worked instead of fathers, or both parents worked. They thought that there must be considerable difficulty in some families between parents and children, as children had a tendency to stay at school very late and go home late at night. They thought that parents were often tired and, therefore, cross; that patterns of values and ways of living varied widely for the pupils within the class. They knew, furthermore, that many of these pupils would marry at a rather early age, judging by the history of previous graduates. They were sure that most of their pupils had only one concept of what family life could be like and that their ideas were in some respects inadequate.

With these facts in mind, the home economics teacher decided to emphasize such aspects as these in her unit on family life: the ways in which family patterns differ—in the money they have, how they use it, who works and at what, how parents discipline, how they show affection, what views they have toward responsibility; how behaviors, values, and ways of living are learned; that heredity is a factor to be adjusted to, but environment is a factor that can be changed; that most people are faced with much the same problems, particularly in family life, but that there are many different ways of solving them; that people often get cross or upset for a variety of reasons. The treatment of these areas was planned to consider their present roles in their families today and their plans for their own families later on.

Although the teachers had tended to assume that over-crowded, low-income households meant insecurity and cleavage in home life, two early sets of papers revealed that this was not necessarily so. Pupils had written on "What I like about my family," and "What I'd like in family life." These papers revealed that many of the pupils had family situations which gave them not only feelings of security and affection but also those opportunities to be independent which adolescents require. Remarks, such as, "My mother lets me pick my own clothes when we go downtown and, even if she doesn't like it so well, she lets me keep them," and "When I have company, sometimes they will go into the bedroom to sit so that I can have the living room," revealed families' considerateness of children and the children's appreciation of parents who understood that ninth-grade pupils

need to make their own decisions and to have some privacy. Reassessment through papers such as these supplied more precise insights and enabled more critical selection of content as the teaching of the unit progressed.

PROBLEMS OF PEER RELATIONS

Another informal technique for diagnosing the particular needs of his classes was used by one member of a junior high school committee on English and social studies. The committee had agreed to develop plans for a unit on "getting along with others." Open questions were used to good advantage by this teacher in narrowing down the general consideration of "getting along" to particular situations and particular persons which were important to his pupils.

Pupils in his 8A grade represented a wide range of chronological age and reading ability. Many of them had come into this class because they were "hard to handle." The group was referred to by other teachers as "the worst class in school." At the time that the open question here to be described was given, the group had been together for over two months, both as a home room and as an English class. A good teacher-pupil rapport had developed. They were becoming accustomed to talking over their own concerns in class and also to using, for reading and discussion, stories and books closely related to those concerns. The procedure described below was not, therefore, the first of its kind in this class, but it is typical. It illustrates how open questions may be introduced. The teacher, Mr. E., said to his class:

There are certain trends in modern education that our school systems and others are trying to put into practice. We are anxious to do the best job of teaching that we can. We will try to help all of you get the most out of this course. We are trying to make some advances in education, just as science is making in science. We cannot do it without your help. For this semester and next, I'll be trying to plan better for this class. When you are asked for an expression on a question, try to give it as exactly as possible. This will help me most in planning. I do not want you to guess what I want—I know that myself. What would help me is for you to say exactly what you think and feel. And certainly I wouldn't expect all of you to feel alike about any one thing. When we get all of these papers together, I will study them and then those things that are mentioned by many of you can be taken up in class and studied together. No one will see anybody's paper except me.

We have talked a good many times about problems people have. One that I'd like to think about today is the kind of problem that you face in getting along with people your own age. All of us have this kind of problem. It may be, for example, a problem of wanting to be part of a crowd and being left out. I remember that some kids were going on a sleigh ride and I wasn't invited; it sure bothered me and I wondered why. Or it may be just wondering how I could show other kids that I liked them. This could be about girls getting along with

girls; boys, with boys; or girls, with boys. One of the things that we ought to learn as we grow up is how to get along with other people. These are just some of the kinds of problems we face. I will use these papers in planning ways that we could learn how to get along better. Oh, yes, I remember another thing that used to bother me; it was what kind of impression I made on others. Now it could be just any kind of problem that you face in getting along with kids your age.

Write down what the problem is that you have faced with people your own age; tell how you tried to work it out, how you really worked it out, and how you felt about it.

This introduction, which may seem unnecessarily long and rambling, in reality provided several important elements. First, it served to motivate the pupils' answers by connecting the question with thinking and planning which would make a difference to them. Second, the various illustrations from the teacher's experience provided dimensions within which the pupils could write; frequently an "open question" is so open that it gives no direction and sets no limits. In this example, the variety of experience suggested by the teacher delimited the area of response, without narrowing it excessively or fostering mere imitation. Third, the teacher's use of his own experience provided a sanction for telling about personal experiences and expressing personal feelings. The pupils in this class already felt this to be acceptable, but in many schools "personal" content has been frowned upon and pupils cannot at first successfully answer questions which call for it. Fourth, the directions told what was to be included and thereby guaranteed responses of sufficient detail and scope to enable the teacher to plan from them. Without these specifics, the replies might be limited to such an answer as: "Once I felt bad because I wasn't invited to a party." This does not afford a basis for diagnosis or for further consideration of what was involved in the situation. Fifth, while the directions were specific, the nature of the question allowed for a considerable range of response and permitted each pupil to relate that particular aspect of getting along with others his own age about which he was concerned. Finally, the confidential nature of every paper was assured.

The papers themselves revealed a variety of difficulties in getting along with others. Some of the accounts suggested ways of handling "being left out" situations which were expedient but which were lacking in social skill. One boy reported, for example:

One time I was the one with the money because I worked and when the gang wanted to go swimming, I put the gas in the car. Everytime we went some place, I was the one to put the gas in the car. I did that for a long time. . . . But then one week I did not work and I did not have any money. They went without me. So from now on, I'm walking all the time, money or no money.

Others revealed a similar feeling of being left out, but they had either found no solution or blamed somebody else for it. One girl wrote:

The reason I don't get along with other kids is because they always get mad if I can't do something they can do, and when I can do something they do, they never ask me to do it. . . . Some things my mother won't let me do, like going out at night, when we have school the next morning, and they get mad because Mother and Dad won't let me do some of the things they want me to do.

Another pupil said:

My problem is in gym. When we play basketball, the kids always choose everyone but me. I'm always left 'til everyone is chosen but me. . . . I feel pretty bad because it seems like I'm always left out because I'm so short. The kids call me "half-pint" and "shorty" and other things and that makes me feel like I'm so much younger than everyone else.

Blaming themselves is not an unusual conclusion of teen-agers who feel unpopular. This reaction can, however, handicap a pupil in comprehending the situation and learning to handle it. Two examples of this kind were:

. . . I can't seem to mix in a crowd with the kids. I would like to. If I try to mix in and get in, I say something that makes me unwanted. I try to control it by being nice, but it don't seem to work.

. . . The harder I try to be nice to the kids, the worse they are to me . . . But I do want to be liked and I usually feel bad inside and cry and just feel unwanted all the time. Maybe it is just because I have one special girl friend, even though I do like them all. Maybe it is just my fault all the way through.

One boy told how he successfully handled the problem of being left out:

. . . My main problem is getting to know the pupils. I have been to quite a number of schools and it always seems to be my biggest problem. Of course, the antidote for this problem is time, but you usually want to meet all the pupils quickly. In the one school, the way I got to know the pupils quickly was to join all the extracurricular activities I could. That way you meet the pupils fast and overcome your shyness quickly. Another way is to invite them over to your house, a few at a time to get familiar with them and learn their names. Especially if their hobby is the same as yours, you should ask them over, then you can talk about something which interests both you and them and at the same time you learn a lot about them.

Many pupils wrote about problems involved in making friends or showing friendliness. The inadequacy of many adult admonitions which told a child what to do without defining the suggestion in terms of actual behavior is illustrated in one girl's comment:

The reason I don't get along with kids is because I am too stubborn, as my mother tells me. I asked my mother what I should do, and she said for me not to be so stubborn.

One boy, who had made a point of including another boy who was left out, later found himself left out and was concerned as to the reasons for his exclusion:

A problem I once faced with a boy of my age was at the time of one of my birthday parties. I knew a pretty mean boy in the neighborhood and we sometimes quarreled. I felt that I should invite him because he was one of the neighborhood and that if I didn't he would feel downhearted seeing all of the other boys invited; so I invited him and he had a good time. Nowadays, I face the same problem. I know a few boys who just think they're the tops and there is nobody else like them and I don't like to play with them very much, but if they grow up to be very popular they will look back and remember me. . . . If I do play with them, I am disgusted and quarrel. I may be one of those boys (who think they are tops) but I try to be friendly.

Two students described envy of another's possessions as causing difficulties:

My problem is whenever Jewell goes to get some new dresses or shoes she will always tell me, and tries to get me jealous. And then when I get something new, she always says that my mother and father must be rich. And she gets ten times more things than I get because there is only one in her family and there are three children in our family . . . so I have to think about my two brothers and she doesn't. My mother told me that I could have as pretty and as many new dresses as any other girl.

Last summer I earned a bicycle. It was not a real expensive Schwinn or English bike. It was just an ordinary bike. One day as I was going to the store on my bicycle, I met a boy I knew on a Schwinn. The first thing he said was that my bike was an old cheapy and his was the best. This made me feel very low to see some one laugh at my bike. I worked very hard to earn mine and the other boy's parents just handed him over a new Schwinn. I learned to agree with the fellow on the Schwinn and then there would be no more arguing over whose was the best. If I said something nice about his bike, he usually said something nice about mine.

Other papers dealt with how to bring in others who were left out, losing one's temper, wanting to have or to do something which parents wouldn't permit but which other pupils had or did, skipping a grade, and not getting along with older pupils. All represented a considerable range in understanding of the problems described and in skills for dealing with them. It was clear also that trial-and-error learning of how to handle such situations had resulted in pupils working out in some cases distinctly "dog-eat-dog" philosophies, or attributing guilt and inadequacy to themselves. The great advantage to pupils in analyzing such situations in school is to learn new ways of behaving under conditions affording protection from the ill consequences of trial and error. This is perhaps the main justification of including such human relations content in school.

The teacher analyzed these papers to show the kinds of problems faced and the kinds of solutions proposed. Next, he looked at the responses with a view to discovering deficiencies in skills and understandings. This procedure helped him identify what pupils seemed to need to find out about getting along. He hoped to help his pupils do several things: develop more insight

into the nature of their own problems and see them as problems common to many teen-agers; increase skills in handling such situations both through reading about how they had been handled and by hearing their classmates discuss what they would do or had done under similar circumstances; develop a better understanding of the situational nature of behavior and of differences among people; build concepts, as well as skills, about appropriate ways of responding to situations of hurt and of feeling left out.

First, he worked out some content ideas. Among them were the following: all people want to be a part of things; some people have a harder time being a part of things than others; all children face similar problems in growing up. The next step was to select books and short stories for reading and discussion in the class, material through which the same kinds of situations they had described about themselves could be examined.

CONCEPTIONS AND MISCONCEPTIONS OF A FOREIGN COUNTRY

Often an activity planned as a learning experience can be used successfully for diagnosis. Such a procedure is illustrated by one teacher's use of two series of questions with her group of thirty pupils who were planning to make a ten-day trip to Mexico. They wrote one paper before the visit and one after. By summarizing and comparing the responses, the teacher was able to locate areas of misconceptions and deficiencies of knowledge previously only vaguely suspected, and for which neither her beginning nor advanced Spanish classes had been providing. The questions on which the pupils wrote before the trip were:

1. What I expect to see (or learn to do) on the visit. (This gave some indication of the reality of the ideas pupils already had about Mexico and Mexicans and also revealed something about their previous experiences in travel.)
2. Why I chose to go on this trip. (It had been hoped that this would reveal something of individual attitudes toward the trip. Except in a few cases, it did not show much significance).
3. Where I have traveled before—other countries and in this country. (The teacher wanted to be able to check on whether reactions which might come were directly related to its being a trip to Mexico or to this being a first experience in this kind of travel.)
4. Where I have met Mexican people previously.

The questions on which they wrote after the trip were:

1. Things I didn't expect on the trip to Mexico.
2. What surprised me most.
3. What I liked most.
4. What I liked least.
5. In what ways the trip was not like what I expected.
6. What new ideas I have about Mexicans.

The first five questions in the second set indirectly revealed previously held ideas and attitudes. Many of these students came from well-to-do, even wealthy homes; almost all of them had a very limited range of experience with other patterns of life, other values, other people. Even pupils who had traveled widely had done so largely in a *milieu* like theirs at home and had not, therefore, experienced much extension of knowledge of sensitivity about other ways of life.

The answers to the first question before the trip seemed to be a listing of the traditional tourist expectations. It may be significant that more than half (53 out of 98) of the responses fell into the "to see" category. It might be inferred from this that these pupils' attitudes toward the country and the people tended to be impersonal and uninvolved. More than half listed, as things they wanted to do, amusements readily available anywhere, such as swimming, relaxing, getting souvenirs.

Nearly all of the sixty-one responses to the second question could be categorized as a desire for new learnings or new experiences. These, however, tended to consist of rather vague generalizations, except where specific recreational and sight-seeing activities were mentioned. Typical of the responses were: "I'd learn more than if I sat around at home," "It's very educational," "I want to take advantage of all opportunities I can." Three descriptive responses are worth noting: "I want to be able to boast of traveling in a country where my friends haven't traveled." "I may never get another chance to take such a trip." "Travel experience means a great deal in future life, particularly business."

In reply to question four, ten pupils indicated having met Mexican people before only as railroad or airline workers, and ten more as having done so at the consulate or in making arrangements for the trip. No one indicated any friendship with or more than casual "seeing" or "meeting" of Mexicans previously.

In the answers to the first set of questions, there were perhaps a dozen comments, some from the same pupils repeatedly, which seemed to carry both a favorable disposition toward Mexicans and a sense that they were people with a particular way of life as admissible as their own.

On the first after-trip question, over two thirds showed they had not expected: that the people would be as they were; that there would be so much progress and economic development; that service would be so good. Some comments were: "The beauty surpassed all I expected the Mexican people to be capable of doing." "The people were so nice and friendly." "The intelligence and pride of the people." "How much Mexico City is like any

American city." "Modern buildings and new buildings—had expected Mexico to be a backward nation, having ox carts for transportation." "The amount of English with which the Mexican is acquainted."

In listing the things that surprised them, twenty-six comments were made on the evidence of progress and economic development and on other points similar to those above. Many were surprised at the "pride and loyalty" of Mexicans and spoke approvingly of it. The curious twist to some of the impressions is illustrated by one comment which ran: "I was surprised at the beauty of the churches—and from such crude people."

In telling what they liked most, many pupils mentioned "the people" and described specific things the people they met had said or had done which they had liked. Others mentioned monuments, scenic spots, recreation. In telling what they liked least, they mentioned primarily details incident to the organization and management of the trip itself and inconveniences of food and water. One pupil records: "There wasn't much I did not like except what couldn't be helped."

One pupil seemed to view himself through the eyes of the Mexican, when he commented, "A couple of times I was ashamed of the group and the way it acted and behaved . . . the attitude of tourists, their high-hattedness—out to get all they could . . . the superiority some of us felt."

On the final question, the pupils listed a variety of new ideas that they had acquired about Mexicans, many of which reveal indirectly their previous notions: About the people, they commented, "They look so different from one another." "They want the same out of life that any average American wants." "The middle class are a great deal like us." "They have an old civilization compared with ours." About social progress, they mentioned, "In a few years they have done what it takes many nations many years to do." "Mexico has advanced almost as much as the United States." "They are not backward, but in some ways smarter than some Americans are." "They aren't as backward and uncivilized as I expected."

Several pupils commented on Mexicans' feeling toward the United States. Nine indicated a friendly attitude and four showed a hostile one.

The papers were used by the teacher in two ways. First, she tried to locate the most educative parts of the trip in order to plan future trips more adequately. Second, she began identifying the particular gaps in pupil knowledge as a basis for revising the content of both beginning and advanced Spanish classes, particularly with an eye to providing reading, discussion, and action experiences which could supply those pupils not making the trips with some of the same learning opportunities.

CHAPTER II

How to Select and Organize Content

ONCE there has been some diagnosis of needs and some projection of the emphasis that is needed in teaching, teachers face the problem of sampling content carefully and scientifically enough to promote a maximum of generalization and insight in pupils with the minimum of content-detail essential to the accomplishment of this end. Several years of experimentation with various approaches to content sampling have yielded a sequence of considerations and steps in planning which seem to be particularly useful and economical of effort.

1. *A decision needs to be made as to the main points or "focusing ideas" which the content unit is meant to teach.*

Teachers are only too familiar with the ever-recurring problem of what content to select in order to handle most adequately a particular learning area; no matter what one teaches, it seems, there is always more to teach about any area than it is possible to teach within the given time. Since most content that was chosen for intergroup relations tended to be at once complex and comprehensive, and since, furthermore, there were no pre-existing patterns by which to determine what should be included in a given unit, some clear-cut criteria were needed by which to start the explorations of content and by which to direct them. "Ideas to Teach" seemed a better starting criterion than "Areas to Cover" because such ideas not only pointed to the kinds of relationships that needed to be emphasized but also put fences around the wide-open areas in helping to determine what detail to include, how far to go with any aspect of the topic, and so on. With ideas as the basis, it was also easier to see to what extent the material and the activities included in the unit were consistent with the analysis of needs and the stated objectives. Thus, if one idea to be taught is that "all people have common needs, but their ways of achieving them differ according to the cultural traditions, income, type of work, and other circumstances," it is immediately clear that some contrasting traditions, income levels, types of work, or family patterns should be examined, rather than examining everything and anything about people's lives

or looking intensively at only one pattern—whether work, or food, or family. In such a context it is also possible to determine which particular things best fill the gaps in insight and understanding for a given group of pupils and supply contrasts with their present experience. Thus, a different sampling may be needed for a group of pupils from wealthy small families than for pupils from slum areas, because their own experiences have left different gaps in their over-all understanding of the idea stated above.

2. Next, selection of the area-topics to be studied is needed in order to provide the factual basis for the focal ideas to be developed.

Only rarely can focusing ideas be used directly as study problems. Pupils comprehend ideas best when they arrive at them after examining and analyzing a series of specifics; they rarely grasp ideas which are given them ready-made. With the idea concerning common needs cited above as a focus, for example, the decision that the family is one area through which to develop it provides a general topic for the unit. (Various other areas of life activity throughout the program should also develop the idea of cultural variation.) In addition to selecting the content area, it is important to determine as well which aspects of the area best illustrate the idea. Thus, in the case of the family, such topics as how families earn their living, how they spend their free time, what roles each member plays, are useful, as each brings out common points of all families while still permitting variations to be shown. Thus, the sub-topic and the emphasis for each can be developed together.

Focal ideas tended to be more alike from school to school and grade to grade, while content topics varied considerably. This was true because certain areas of ideas were essentially concerned with intergroup relations, and each school attempted to provide for them. One such area had to do with cultural and personal differences among people, inasmuch as all pupils seemed to need extension of their understanding and appreciation of people and patterns of living unlike their own.

A second area of ideas was related to the comprehension of why people behave as they do, and in intergroup education the special concern was with how cultural learnings make a difference in the individual's values and behaviors. A third area had to do with understanding the dynamics of group situations and becoming more skillful in behaving in groups. The majority of the illustrations¹ in this section were drawn from social studies, particularly history. Illustrations from literature have not been stressed, as separate pub-

¹ *Literature for Human Understanding* 1948, and *Reading Ladders* 1947, Work in Progress Series, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.

lications have already dealt with them. Although some additional units in civics, in home economics, in music, and in other areas are in preparation, none has yet been tried out sufficiently to permit inclusion here.

Content areas chosen to build any of the focal ideas varied considerably more from school to school because they depended upon such factors as the existing courses of study, special interests of the teacher or of the pupils, what materials were available, and what local preferences and pressures for curriculum-content existed. This flexibility in choosing content areas was particularly important during the period of exploration as it permitted testing out means of developing the focal ideas in a variety of ways for the various age levels and in various content areas. It resulted in teachers being able to work from many different angles on the development of ideas, sensitivities, and skills which are essentially related.

Thus, for instance, the focal idea above might have been dealt with in the first or second grade through a consideration of "what our daddies do and what difference it makes to us"; in junior high school, by studying "what newcomers came to America and what patterns of life they built"; in high-school literature, through reading about how different families have fun together or how brothers and sisters get along; in home economics, through planning and preparing the different meals that different families like; in history or economics, by studying the kinds of work people do, who is engaged in each kind of work and what are the effects of the work they do on their particular life pattern and values.

3. Decisions, then, need to be made as to what sample of contrasting and comparative detail is needed under each topic.

Selection should ensure economical coverage of facts, at the same time not including such a clutter of them as to leave no opportunity for examining the relationships of these facts to core ideas. It should provide for the examination of some aspects in sufficient detail for pupils to get the needed insights. The usual difficulty which occurs at this point is that certain details have through past usage acquired a sanctity in and of themselves, apart from any usefulness in providing insight, developing generalizations, or clarifying concepts. A series of focusing ideas can give a critical basis for including or discarding facts which a topic-heading cannot.

4. Finally, it is important to decide in what sequence the topics and sub-topics are to be taken up; that is, in which sequence to have them in the teaching outline.

In our experiments we tried to have an inductive sequence which started with the more concrete facts and descriptions from which pupils could build ideas and ended with more general questions as a means of bringing ideas together. This is the reverse of what usually takes place in teaching. For example, instead of starting with either a general definition of the family as a social unit or a list of its functions, "what particular families do" was explored first. Once a sufficient number of descriptions had been given, pupils were able to do their own defining.

This chapter describes several ways teachers, individually and in groups, have gone about this problem of selecting and organizing content in the field of intergroup relations. The following examples are taken from more or less well-developed pieces of work and do not always trace sufficiently the actual steps undertaken.²

THE PEOPLES OF OUR STATE

Teachers at Tower School, whose explorations in diagnosis have been described in the previous chapter, were interested in revising the ninth-grade course in local history.

Formerly, they had taught historic events in chronological sequence, important historic landmarks, and the resources of the city and the state. They decided now to emphasize the people of the state and the why's and wherefore's of the different culture patterns which existed among them. They chose this emphasis partly because they saw in it a more fruitful avenue for teaching what seemed to them of importance in history, and partly because it permitted them to develop such concepts of intergroup relations as "culture institutions and traditions are the result of the intermingling and fusion of many people from many lands," "the lives of people are influenced by the nature of the land, the nature of the era in which they live, and the nature of the work they do for a living;" that is, "people are what they are mainly because of the experiences which they have had."

The course in its final form was broken into three sections: (I) The Culture Patterns of the People of Our State; (II) Inequalities of Opportunity Among the People of Our State; (III) The Influence of Land upon the Lives of People. (The last topic was a concession to the emphasis on geography as it was clear to the staff that some other influences might equally be singled out for special emphasis.)

The illustrations below are drawn from the first unit—"The Peoples of Our State," which emphasized the variety in the various population groups'

² This is done in the class log, p. 64.

backgrounds, culture patterns, and methods of settling. The choice of this topic seemed to enable the staff to meet some earlier discovered needs and to encompass some general concepts and understandings of intergroup relations.

First, in order to get some idea of where to begin in selecting the course content, the staff formulated a series of focusing ideas, the function of which they defined as follows: "They serve as organizing ideas for the unit; they are concepts which grow and increase in significance as pupils participate in the learning activities; they are points around which learning activities are built."

In the final statement of the unit, over a year after the initial formulation, the core ideas were stated as follows:

1. The present culture pattern has been enriched by the fusion of many cultures.
2. The people who have come to our state wished to improve their economic status, to escape from unfavorable social or personal conditions, or to take advantage of the healthful climate and pleasant surroundings. Many had faith in the American Way of Life and a hope of fulfilling long cherished dreams.
3. Each group brought with it a distinct culture:

"And all brought hands with which to work,
And all brought minds that could conceive,
And all brought minds filled with home—stout hearts to drive live minds;
Live minds to direct willing hands."

—Franklin P. Lane in *Book of America's Making Exposition*.

4. Some people who came here found a land of opportunity and freedom and a chance for advancement. Others found discrimination and prejudice. All found obstacles, such as confusing languages, different customs and dress, and a tendency on the part of the inhabitants to belittle newcomers, especially immigrants from other countries.
5. Some of those who came were able to make satisfactory adjustments in dress, language, and ways of living, but others found difficulty in overcoming obstacles.
6. Because of primitive conditions, need for protection, the necessity of helping each other, and the wide expanse over which they settled, fusion took place rapidly among those who came early, but those who came later to centers of population tended to retain their original culture longer.

Second, the teachers explored which content area would serve as the vehicle through which these ideas could be developed. The various ethnic groups which had come to the state were the logical choice. But these teachers found that

The population of our state contains, in more or less fused form, a wide variety of nationality and ethnic groupings. Among them are Anglo-Saxons and Celts from other parts of the United States, Canada, and the British Isles. The French and Spanish explored the region and intermarried to some extent with the Indians. Their descendants form a large population group. Negroes, Chinese,

Japanese, Europeans, and others came and continue to come in successive waves of emigration from the old countries.

Which ones should be chosen for study was the question these teachers asked themselves—a question they attempted to answer by setting up six criteria as the basis for sampling this wide range and reducing the number of groups studied without reducing their instructive potential. They realized that each school would select different population groups. Neither did they think that each class or school should have to meet all six criteria in its selection. Their criteria were:

1. In which ethnic or nationality group are the pupils themselves most interested? Which do they themselves represent?
2. Which of these groups have been most influential in determining our local culture pattern?
3. Which groups stand out as different?
4. Which groups now are most affected by prejudice?
5. Is there historical range in the groups selected?
6. Are different parts of the state represented?

These teachers did not want to immerse their pupils in a mass of superficial learnings about many groups, for fear that the ideas they wanted to teach would get lost—nor could they hope to cover all population groups and still teach anything else about their state.

By these six criteria it was possible to narrow down the choice to about five population groups and still be assured that early as well as late settlers were covered, that the periods of history significant in the story of immigration were sampled, and that the so-called dominant and so-called minority groups were represented. One class included Anglo-Saxons, Spanish, Negroes, Jews, and Germans. Each class chose a slightly different sample. This method of sampling allowed not only for the covering of the general ideas, but also for the gaining of proper perspective on important historic changes in the development of the state and on the historic events leading to these population movements.

As the third step in this series on the planning and selecting of content, they formulated the dimensions or questions through which all these groups could be approached for study.

In this case, it was possible to formulate a series of sub-topics in the form of questions applying to all groups which would later facilitate the comparing and contrasting of one group with the next one. These common questions served first as the organizing structure for study and reports, and second, as the common points around which all the committee reports could be discussed and compared. In addition, these common questions did much

to overcome the lack of interest in a report of all except those in the committee making the report—and thereby did much toward eliminating bore-some, disconnected, and, therefore, ineffective committee reports. The organizing questions chosen were:

1. What people have come to our state?
2. Where did they come from and where did they settle?
3. Why did these people come to our state?
4. What did they bring with them?
5. What have they found here?
6. What adjustments have they had to make?

For the final step, each of these questions was elaborated by sub-topics designed to provide a selective basis for the detail to be included, both in the class study and in the committee reports. For example, among the suggestions for developing the topic "What the people brought with them" were ideas about government; skills in farming, mining, crafts, *etc*; ideas about science, literature and music; customs with regard to marriage, birth, and death; religious beliefs and observances; patterns of work and play; different languages; ideals.

This method of developing the content selection avoided the stumbling block of including only stereotyped contributions of various people to America. The detailed study of some population variables and appropriate discussion emphases also made possible the classification of pupil ideas about differences and similarities, as well as about contributions.³

RIGHTS, A UNIT IN AMERICAN CULTURE

A similar procedure was followed by a group of teachers who were developing a course called American culture. This course attempted to teach American history and American literature in combination toward the end of promoting a better understanding of culture patterns in American society. The course tentatively consisted of four main units—The People of America, Rights, America's Economic Patterns, and America and World Peace. In each unit, the emphasis was on human relations and group relations concepts, and on the consequences of the various historical and social events to human beings.

What content should be included in the "Rights" section and how it should be organized were problems of special difficulty. No teacher had previously explored from the group relations standpoint the matter of rights in

³ How learning activities also contributed to establishing these points will be shown in the next section. For, an elaboration of the total scheme of curriculum planning that these sections illustrate see: Hilda Taba, "General Techniques of Curriculum Planning" Chap. V in *American Education in the Post-war Period*, Part I, Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945).

American society. The history course had generally examined the basic documents and had given the general history of the development of rights in American society and in Europe.

During the first year, the teachers developed criteria for selection and for organization. It seemed evident that it was important first for pupils to see that the exercise of rights is not something God-given and inherent, but requires a good deal of struggle and is sometimes realized only after a very long period of effort. For this reason, it was decided to include some rights which have a long history of acceptance and legal guarantees and others which are only now emerging as accepted rights. The two types of rights are illustrated in the right of suffrage as compared with the right to a job. While the former is legalized, worked out in detail, and at least capable of application to all people, the right to a job is still a debated issue and is only partially and imperfectly protected by law. The right to a job has a status at present much the same as voting must have had in the thirteenth, the fourteenth, and even the seventeenth centuries.

Second, it seemed to the teachers that in order for pupils to gain insight into what rights really mean in practice, it would be necessary to examine both the basic documents in which they were promulgated, and also the areas in which they are not applied, with particular emphasis on how people feel when denied rights which other people have. This made it necessary to sample basic documents on rights as well as literature dealing with people's reaction to either the possession or the denial of rights. Finally, it seemed important to sample rights that are maintained in different ways, such as those determined by law contrasted with those supported merely by tacitly accepted social codes.

With all these considerations in mind, the staff organized the course in American culture as follows:

I. There are various kinds of rights:

- a. Those determined by law.
- b. Those developed by social code.

II. Ways and means of acquiring and losing rights.

III. Ways people feel toward rights.

IV. What can be done to further rights?

In this organization, III was considered the section which would be developed through the use of literature, while the history course had the major responsibility for the other three sections. This particular topic organization was designed to implement some thirteen content ideas on which the staff had agreed. Among these were:

1. Social *mores*, family agreements, special circumstances, and group membership determine some of the rights that the individual has.
2. Certain rights are guaranteed to the individual by the government.
3. Some people or groups of people are denied certain legal as well as inherent rights. People who are denied rights feel bitter, frustrated, insecure, and without equal opportunity as a result.
4. Every right carries with it restrictions and obligations for someone.
5. All rights are interdependently related.
6. Some rights are more crucial to society than others.

As subsequent teams of teachers tried out the course, they attempted new organizational schemes. Retaining essentially the same idea, they worked out course plans which had slightly different topical outlines and made use of somewhat different approaches. One teacher, for example, stated these as his content ideas:

1. Rights have been acquired through a long process of struggle.
2. Certain individuals and groups are denied rights which are available to others.
3. Some individuals and groups, who themselves struggled and are still struggling for rights, tend for certain reasons to deny them to others.
4. Various techniques and methods are used in this process of denial.
5. There are always conflicts in the exercising of rights; society constantly tries to reconcile these improvised solutions.
6. Every right carries restrictions and obligations for someone.
7. Some rights are more crucial to society than others.
8. People who are denied rights feel embittered, frustrated, insecure, and without opportunities as a consequence.
9. There are numerous ways to acquire as well as to lose one's rights.

This teacher did not employ the former criteria of established rights as opposed to recent rights, legally enforced rights as opposed to socially implicit rights. He wanted to use the report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights as the organizing base. Therefore, he grouped the kinds of rights to be sampled under the four headings of the President's report—rights for the safety and security of persons; rights to citizenship and its privileges; rights to freedom of conscience and expression; rights to equality of opportunity. In addition, he wanted to deal particularly with present-day abuses of rights; so his selection provided for starting with the present-day level of rights and then tracing back to historical origins, sampling at least one of each of the four kinds of rights he had identified.

This plan necessitated that he face the question of what were the most important things to consider in dealing with any right. His own statement of the needs of the pupils reveals why he decided on the organization he adopted:

Most pupils are undoubtedly unfamiliar with the meaning of rights; nor are they aware what rights they possess. Their knowledge of the long struggle for rights

and the role played by various organizations and individuals in securing those rights is very limited, if not nonexistent. Many of them do not realize that the rights which they unknowingly enjoy are denied to others, and they have not become sensitized to the feelings of those who are denied rights. They take rights for granted, not realizing that every right carries responsibilities. I am not certain to what degree these pupils are aware that their personal rights depend upon their co-operation in groups within and out of school. They lack skill in exploring their individual and co-operative roles in aiding those championing the cause of freedom and of human rights, and also they lack skill in sensing the need for rights.

Part of this teacher's plan was constantly to diagnose and reassess the pupils' understanding and familiarity with the content of the unit and to check upon his original assumptions concerning their needs. Planning for what he considered at that time to be their greatest needs, he arrived at the following topical organization for the unit:

- I. We enjoy certain rights.
- II. Rights have been acquired after a long struggle.
 - a. Ways of achieving rights.
 - b. Certain groups and individuals are active in the struggle for rights.
 - c. Why people fight for rights.
 - d. How people feel about acquiring and losing rights.
- III. Some groups have been and others are now denied rights.
 - a. Those groups who are denied rights.
 - b. Some of those denying rights to others have benefited in the struggle for rights; some still fight for their rights.
 - c. Some methods used in the denying of rights.
 - d. Denial of rights to others tends to affect the deniers and their supporters.
 - e. Rights can be lost.
- IV. What can we do about it?

In the development of each topic, he used both case studies and basic documents and stories. For example, under the topic II (a), *Ways of achieving rights*, the following were suggested as case studies: Bacon's Rebellion; the Colonial Revolt; American Revolution; Declaration of Independence; Constitution; Bill of Rights; Amendments 13, 14, and 15; the Abolition Movement; Unionism; Struggle of Labor; Standards of Living; Agrarian Movement; Anti-monopoly Legislation; Social Security Act; Women's Suffrage Movement; Federal Aid to Education Act; Northwest Ordinance; Indiana Constitution; Child Welfare Organization. It will be noted that these studies sampled both the historical appearance and a diversity of methods for achieving rights. Although this listing included incidents, acts, and documents, the plan in treating each was to demonstrate the variety of ways in which rights have been acquired, different methods employed, and the variety of groups which were active in obtaining them.

The teacher's approach in the classroom situation was to have the entire class make one case study in order to establish a method of study and analysis. Then the class was divided into committees with each group selecting a particular case study and analyzing it.

Still a third method of organization for the same unit, utilizing the same focusing ideas, was developed by another teacher. His plan provided for sampling rights from each of these four categories: civil rights; political rights; economic and social rights; scientific rights. His plan for each of the rights sampled involved taking up some five or six documents relating to that particular right. First one document was studied by the whole class, utilizing the following questions for its analysis:

1. What happened on this occasion? (The when, where, who, what, and why; the action taken and the attitudes expressed.)
2. What general principle was at stake on this occasion?
3. What difference did that principle make at the time? (In terms of the consequences for society as a whole and for individual human beings.)
4. What difference does that principle make today? (In terms of the consequences for society as a whole and for individual human beings.)

The particular rights selected and the kinds of documents used to illustrate them enabled both the cross-wide sampling identified and also the historical sampling which each unit should provide.

A COMMON LEARNINGS COURSE

The third example of selection and organization of content comes from a course developed for an eleventh-grade "Common Learnings" course. This course included work in American history, economics, sociology, foreign relations, and literature, and was designed to "develop systematically the connections between English and the social studies." This course covered one school year. It was taught by one teacher who had competence in both subject areas, for two consecutive periods a day, an approach which facilitated the systematic development of understandings and which enabled the teacher to spend more time with the pupils and so learn more about each one. The course was called "Peopling America" and was covered in four sections: Waves of immigration; Westward waves of immigration; Interwaves of migration; Waves of employment.

This teacher also had several special considerations to keep in mind. Since this course was the equivalent of American history and literature, and since many of her pupils qualified for college, she was eager to hew as closely as possible to the traditional course; hence, her intergroup emphasis appeared more in the learning experiences than in the content outline. Also, since the content for the topic illustrated here—waves of unemployment—touches on

many points highly controversial in her community, the investigating activities needed to be pretty thorough to put a factual floor under opinions she knew prevailed among both her students and their parents.

The choice of the material, emphasis, and learning activities in this outline was determined by the following observations on the needs of the pupils, given in their teacher's own words:⁴

At Seven Corners in our district, the youth have grown up in an atmosphere of poverty and struggle. They have never doubted that everybody works if jobs are available; that everybody goes on relief if jobs are not available. They, like their fathers, join the unions in good times because they think that is the only way to get good jobs. They recognize the closed shop. In good times, most of them spend their money as fast as they earn it, because they have never learned to handle money. After that, there is the relief line, and the city will take care of them. On River Drive, also in our school district, lives the pupil whose "dad" owns the factory where the others work. He has the viewpoint of the employer. He has never known what it is to stand in the assembly line, to draw a weekly pay check, to carry a social security card, to join a union, and to strike if the union says to strike. He knows only that a strike is very inconvenient for his father.

It is good for these two groups to meet on common ground around a topic that has implications for both sides and to discover the other's point of view. Both viewpoints are important and should be understood by all potential citizens. Employment seems like a topic which permits this.

Having made the decision that employment was the kind of subject that would permit comparative treatment of issues on which there were divergent points of view in the school, she then considered what the pupil needs were in relation to the topic of employment. Her analysis of these needs follow in her own words:

1. Cost of living is high. Bread and meat are almost three times what they were before the war. Trolley fare has advanced from seven cents to nine cents and is going higher. Clothes have trebled in price. Why is there such an advance in the cost of living?

First need: To understand the relation between highly-paid widespread employment and the cost of living.

2. Some of the pupils may remember that, when they were very young in the '30's, their fathers didn't have jobs, that they had little to wear, and that they had no money for amusements. Why didn't their fathers have jobs?

Second need: To understand the economic causes and effects of widespread employment or unemployment.

3. Most of their fathers and big brothers are employed in textile mills, flour mills, farm machinery, or air-conditioning plants. Why? Of course, they are big. What makes them big? Most of the pupils who work are employed at Sears-Roebuck or Woolworth's. Jobs are easier to get there than in small private businesses. Why?

⁴ These came from her general observations, not from a systematic survey.

Third need: To understand the effect of mass production on employment from manufacturing to retailing, operating in cycles of expansion and depression.

4. Unions protect the working man. There is a union for almost every type of work. Some are open shop; others, closed. Yet, are these unions open to all workmen, the unskilled as well as the skilled? The Negro as well as the white? The immigrant as well as the native-born?

Fourth need: To understand that all people have the right to security in their jobs and that there are ways of gaining that security.

5. "These are matters of interest, surely; but how do they concern me? I'm only a kid in the neighborhood." But the kid in the neighborhood is the potential citizen of tomorrow, who will cast his ballot and assume the responsibility of shaping policies and selecting representatives from that same neighborhood. He himself may be that representative.

Fifth need: To understand and to prepare for their own parts in the city and in the nation of tomorrow.

6. The world seems to have grown smaller. A trip around the world today seems less of a trip than one from New York to San Francisco seemed fifty years ago. Not only has transportation reduced the size of the world, but rapid communication has reduced the size still more. We have, as a nation, joined hands with other nations committed to certain common ideas. We are a land of plenty. We "have"; other nations "have not." What should we do about our foreign relations?

Sixth need: To understand the challenge in our relations to other nations and our obligation in maintaining the peace of the world.

7. Selfishness in our desires and narrowness in our viewpoints usually interfere with our ability to face issues squarely and dispassionately. Perhaps lack of imagination is partly to blame for our blindness. Not until we learn to put ourselves into the other person's shoes will we be able to understand.

Seventh need: To be able to project themselves emotionally into another's point of view—from the employee's to the employer's and the reverse, from the local to the national, and from the national to the international.

8. Since practice perfects communication skills, and since "writing maketh the exact man" (Bacon), all persons should write often. So much, also, is gained by talking with and listening to others, as well as by reading, that we ought to make use of every opportunity to improve our skills.

Eighth need: To acquire indirectly through a meaningful content the skills of communication—writing, reading, speaking, and listening.

With the relevant needs worked out, she was able to formulate her objectives for the course, which she listed as follows:

1. Develop objective patterns of thinking in areas in which they tend to think emotionally.
2. Develop ability and skills needed for original investigation and initiative.
3. Be able to see the economic, sociological, national, international problems as they are related to each pupil personally.
4. Clarify these problems for his understanding.
5. Be able to see the human element in these problems.

6. To see more clearly how the U.S.A. can assume the responsibility of the leadership role among the other nations and improve communication skills while at work on the meaningful content of these units.

Her decision on what focusing ideas to include was affected by her emphasis on (a) understanding the relationship between employment and cost of living and on (b) wanting to show "both sides of the employment issue" in order to bring together the two widely divergent viewpoints and backgrounds represented in her class. Her decision was also affected by her belief that since this section was part of a broader course, *Peopling America*, it should make some meaningful contribution to the total course. In the light of all these considerations, she formulated the following "ideas to emphasize":⁶

1. Mass-production technique in work requires many abrupt population changes.
2. The more complicated society is, the more necessary it is to organize in order to have a voice.

⁶ These she used as topics for study.

WORK PATTERNS OF AMERICA

Youth learn about the work pattern of America
The assembly line of the Ford Motor Company



3. Extensiveness of mass production increases the numbers employed, thereby increasing the massed power of the worker.
4. Mass-production methods, when not controlled, are likely to produce cycles of widespread employment or unemployment.
5. Events concerning other nations and our relations with those nations in the light of those events influence our economic status in regard to the extent of our employment at home and the extent of our trade abroad.

With these focusing ideas clearly in mind, she was then able to outline the ways in which the topic of employment was to be approached. The section of the outline given here is one that deals with the third focusing idea: "Extensiveness of mass production increases the number employed, thereby increasing the massed power of the workers."

A. What is mass production? What are the advantages to the employer? To the employed? To the market?

The learning activity for this section was to have pupil committees visit large industrial plants nearby to watch the operation of the assembly line and to interview both management and workers. The next related activity was to visit a shop that utilized semihand skills so the pupil might see at first hand the difference between the two production methods.

B. What might be some of the causes for increased mass production?

Such factors as the use of inventions and of machines, public pressure for more and cheaper goods, the economy in using unskilled or semiskilled men in place of artisans, etc., were considered in the development of this topic. For this section, library research as well as review of the visits and interviews was the learning activity. Pupils were to examine what made assembly lines possible. They were asked to reconsider the advantages of mass production to the workers, the employers, and the consuming public. They were also asked to begin to explore how the appearance of monopolies was related to mass-production methods.*

C. What are some of the methods used to speed output?

Such things as piece work, bonuses, shareholding, policies in hiring and firing for efficiency were to be sampled here. The learning activities here took a different turn. The teacher recognized that ideas relating to the assembly line, its mechanical procedures, work pressures, and connection of mass production with monopolies were apt to be abstractions to her pupils. To counteract this tendency, she provided reading materials which would enable the pupils to look at these processes in the way that the worker and

*The direct study of monopolies came in a later section.

management, respectively, look at them. She introduced the pupils to passages from *The Octopus* by Frank Norris, a book which deals with the crushing power of "big business." Chapter V of *The Valley of Decision* by Marcia Davenport was assigned to show the effect of monotony of production on the worker, and Chapter XII, to illustrate the costly research projects that a large firm is able to undertake. This book treats with the beginning of the use of the open-hearth in steel mills. The story on the open-hearth in Hershel Hall's *Steel Preferred* provides another illustration of the steel industry. *All Brave Sailors* by John Beecher shows (pages 53-73) that there are problems of human labor still unsolved.

At the same time, pupils were asked to draw on their own experience and that of a relative or neighbor to describe how and why management exerts pressure on the worker to get more work done and the worker's reaction to this pressure. Library research was again introduced to obtain more information on these points. Wartime experiences were used to illustrate pressures on companies by government for greater production.

D. What is the advantage of mass production over that of the master journeyman? Isn't there anything to be said for the skills of the master workman? How is speed acquired in mass production? What might be said against it?

Since understanding of the differences between the manual and machine methods of production was the main point, the learning activity was to examine how a car and a sweater (or any other two items involving different proportions of machine labor) were produced and to compare the two methods by such questions as: How much does each produce? What products can be better produced by each method? What price does the consumer pay for the product of each method?

E. How has the power of the workingman been organized? How is it used? How is it misused? Is this power of any consequence if not organized? Are unions democratic?

At this point the study of union organization was undertaken. Fathers were consulted as to union practices and purposes. The majority rule as used for good and bad purposes was discussed.

F. Has the government ever put restrictions on unions? If so, what restrictions and for which purposes and with which effects?

At this point pupils examined several acts, such as the establishment of the Department of Labor in 1914, Adamson Eight Hour Act in 1916, the National Labor Relations Act in 1935, Fair Labor Standards Act in 1938, and the Taft-Hartley Law in 1947.

G. Has the government ever found it necessary to legislate to control the men who furnish the capital for the assembly line in mass production? Whom? How? If not, why not? If so, why?

The class here studied the Alien Contract Labor Law, 1885, regulating the bringing in of foreign labor; the Interstate Commerce Act, 1887, regulating monopolies; the Sherman Anti-trust Law, 1890, reviving competition; the Meat Inspection Act, 1906, regulating the meat monopoly and protecting the public; the Pure Food and Drug Act, 1906, for the same purpose; the Clayton Anti-trust Law, 1914, breaking up monopolies more specifically; the Co-operative Law, 1921, for the same purpose by negative process; the TVA, 1933, attacking big business by entering a rival monopoly; the National Industrial Recovery Act, 1933-1935, regulating big business; the Tydings-Miller Act, 1937, giving manufacturers the right to fix prices at which others may sell.

The pupils also kept scrapbooks of clippings on current information on labor disputes and Congressional action on them. The culminating learning activity was the holding of open or panel discussions on the pooled information from all the learning assignments.

This is an example of how, within the fairly traditional context, certain needs in regard to pupil understanding of opposing influences especially involved in their lives can be provided for (a) by pointing up clearly which understandings are most needed, and then (b) by sampling both content areas and their details, which in this case are largely shown in the outline of the learning activities.

AMERICAN HISTORY

The fourth example of the selection and organization of content is from a course in American history. This teacher was faced with the problem of limitation in social experience in reverse to that which besets economically deprived children. Most of her pupils were from highly privileged homes, economically. But because of this suburban community's almost uniformly high economic level and its restricted nature, the social patterns to which these pupils were exposed were as narrow as they were uniform. This teacher's diagnosis of her pupils' needs was as follows:

Most of the parents in this community have been economically successful and expect their children to achieve economic success equal to or greater than their own. Families are small. The children have everything they need and want: comfortable homes, fads in dress and books, lessons in this and that, travel, summer camps, adequate allowances. More than fifty per cent of them go on to college. They expect to marry well. They are continually striving for acceptance in the "right" social groups.

Children brought up in this protected society are not really aware that most people have different living standards from their own. The families are traditionally Republican, believe in *laissez-faire* attitude toward business, are opposed to organized labor, believe all government planning is evidence of a dangerous tendency towards socialism or communism in this country. Their children have been taught that the "New Deal" represents a period during which many laws still hampering business were enacted, that F.D.R. was a man to be hated and Herbert Hoover a man to be glorified.

Children from two villages adjoining the suburban community described above also attend the same high school. One of these communities, although less wealthy and restricted, has social values and patterns very similar to its larger neighbor, so that its children adjust themselves easily to the ways of their wealthier fellow-students.

The picture is decidedly different for the second of these two smaller communities, half of which is in the same high-school district as the two areas already described. Many first- and second-generation Poles, Ukrainians, Yugoslavs, and Czechs live here. They earn their living chiefly as industrial workers and as employees of the railroad. They are members of labor unions. During the 1930's, many of these families were with WPA, or some other relief project, or were on direct relief. World War II has resulted in higher wages and considerable improvements in living standards for them.

The children of these families often feel inferior and socially inadequate in the high-school context. They are embarrassed about their family backgrounds, their names, their clothes. Although a few of them have made important places for themselves through the school's effort toward promoting better relationships among groups, the majority continue to feel unaccepted outsiders. A considerable number become discouraged and drop out of school. The majority of those who stay on until graduation go directly to work rather than to college.

The intergroup relations problems posed by the group differences described above are considerable. However, one characteristic is typical of all these children: they have little or no understanding of life in America outside of urban and suburban communities. To them, city life is American life. They are unaware of the meaning of rural living, of the problems of the farmer and his family, of the part the rural areas of America play in the social and economic life of our nation.

This analysis of her pupils' needs led this teacher to formulate the following objectives for her course in American history:

1. An understanding of the relationships between government and society.
2. An understanding of some of the forces which stand in the way of improving these relationships.
3. An exploration of methods of bringing government into a more satisfactory relationship with society and the need to do so because of changed patterns of living.
4. To build such socially constructive attitudes and behaviors as:
 - a. A concrete implementation of the belief in the dignity and worth of the individual.
 - b. Interest and concern for the welfare of groups not usually within their radius of concern.

- c. A regard for the relationship of natural resources of the nation to the human welfare, and concern for their conservation.
- d. A respect for the opinions of others.
- e. A social attitude toward problems.
- f. Critical judgment in examining and dealing with social problems.

The teacher selected the following focusing ideas for her course, having taken into account the needs of her pupils, the fact that the course was in American history, and that one of its emphases was to be on the relationship of government to society:

1. The welfare of the whole society depends upon the welfare of the individuals and groups that make up that society.
2. Practices which may benefit some groups may be detrimental to others.
3. Needs of the various groups in a society differ.
4. Laws restricting some may benefit others, and laws which seem to restrict some groups may benefit all.
5. Governmental action should be appraised in terms of the whole society rather than in terms of the needs and desires of a particular group.
6. Society must pay in some manner and usually does for its own failures.

Her next step was to search for content in the area of American history which would allow the pupils to explore the ideas she had in mind and which would pose in clear-cut contrasts and comparisons the kinds of problems inherent in applying these ideas.

One of the topics she chose was how government can protect individuals, groups, and the general welfare from the consequences of a competitive industrial society. She chose three case illustrations from a much larger list of possibilities as being the sharpest, the most contrasting, and the most appropriate to her situation:

1. The problem of regulating wages and hours for workers.
2. Regulating the kind and amount of agricultural production.
3. Controlling the type of services in public utilities.

Each of these case illustrations was then developed according to the same pattern: a series of focusing ideas was stated; the kinds of questions to ask about each were listed; learning activities to make the content meaningful to the pupils were projected. Her development of the first problem area, namely, the regulation of wages and hours for workers, is here given as an example of her approach.

1. *Focusing ideas*

- a. There is a direct relationship between income and power to purchase goods.
- b. There is a direct relationship between the purchasing power of large groups of people and the prosperity of the producer.
- c. Long working hours and low living standards create health problems.
- d. The health and efficiency of the worker are of importance to the general welfare.

- e. Feelings of workers are important.
 - f. The worker's participation in community life is affected by the length of his working day.
 - g. The worker's family life is directly affected by his wages and hours and time of work.
 - h. Unemployment of workers is a problem of our whole society.
 - i. The Fair Labor Standards Act (1936) improved the condition of the worker.
 - j. Wage standards set up in 1936 are inadequate to meet present-day prices.
2. Questions to consider in studying the topic
- a. What is the problem?
 - b. What are its causes?
 - c. Who (or what) is affected and how?
 - d. What are the consequences or costs to society?
 - e. What has been or is being done about it?
3. Learning activities
- a. Read excerpts from several sources to become sensitized to the problem of low wages and long working hours. Use such sources as the section on the fruit pickers in Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath*. Follow with discussion.
 - b. Send committees from the class to visit several nearby factories to interview workers and others and bring back data on wages, hours, and working conditions. Precede visits with class discussion of procedures to follow and specific information to bring home. Follow with summary of findings, comparisons, analysis, and conclusions.
 - c. Prepare several family budgets for different income levels (from data obtained in '2') to show contrasts in living standards at several income levels. Examine. Draw conclusions.
 - d. Prepare a diary of the week's activities of a worker employed forty hours a week. Indicate the things he would have to give up if his work-week were increased to forty-eight hours. Discuss effect on his family-life, community activities.
 - e. Ask members of the class to write a paragraph describing how they felt after a long day's work. (Use Saturday job, vacation job, or work at home.) Read to class. Compare with industrial worker.
 - f. Use personal experiences of pupils to show how the worker becomes less efficient as the day passes. List incidents on the blackboard. Draw conclusions. Apply to worker in factory.

This teacher had specific reasons for choosing these particular learning activities. She chose the first one, that of reading the section on the fruit pickers from *Grapes of Wrath*, because she felt some dramatic examples of people living and working under conditions of low wages and long hours were necessary for pupils who were lacking in contact or experience with such conditions.

Her reasons for planning a visit to a factory were similar. These pupils had heard and read a good deal about workers being "demanding," about current wages being "atrociously" high. They were not in a position to ap-

praise workers' attitudes and economic position with understanding, however, since their own life experiences had not provided them with instances of drudgery and of the fatigue that comes from repetitive and monotonous work.

The preparation of family budgets for different income levels was also meant to serve as a broadening and sensitizing experience. When these pupils come to indicate what they believe are life necessities and then attempt to translate these necessities into the budgets of the various income levels, they are likely to gain some idea why many people do not have so many of the things they consider to be a part of everyday living—and thus they learn that the lack of such things in these people's lives is not necessarily due to their "stupidity."

A worker's diary and the description of the personal effects of a long day's work were also meant to provide actual experiences in areas of living with which they are not familiar.

These sensitizing assignments were followed by the informational, fact-finding assignments, such as studying in texts and pamphlets about the distribution of national income, examining the various labor acts, working on statistics pertaining to relationship of income, health, *etc.* Combining these two kinds of learning experiences in this particular sequence served to integrate the active experiences into a broader framework of understandings, on the one hand, and to provide examples in actually experienced life terms of written factual material, on the other hand.

Each of the other two problem areas, regulating the kinds and amount of agricultural production and controlling public utilities—or any content topic for that matter—was developed in a similar fashion—by stating focusing ideas and raising questions and by projecting a combination of learning activities designed both to inform and to reorient the pupils. Such development was based, as we have seen, partly, on the teacher's objectives for the course which took the pupils' needs into account and, partly, from available knowledge of the requirements for effective learning.

AN ART PROGRAM

The fifth example of the selection and organization of content comes from an art class for advanced pupils. Art programs are usually determined by covering certain skills and by becoming familiar with certain art objects. Furthermore, in this field teachers are especially wary about deviating from the standard for fear of making selections by purely personal preferences. Therefore, the formulation of idea content criteria for choosing both the

pictures to look at and what to produce is a big step. Also, the ideas used in this unit are an addition to what is usually considered to be the function of art in intergroup education programs. The contributions of various population groups to art is the usual emphasis.

The project of an art teacher, Miss Miller, in a senior high school illustrates still a different way of projecting objectives from discovered needs and deficiencies in pupil understanding of group relations and of sampling systematically the content and the particular type of learning experiences which are needed.

Her survey of pupil needs had highlighted a conflict situation in the school among the various socio-economic levels. She saw these needs as requiring that they develop attitudes of acceptance towards peoples and individuals, a desire and a skill to formulate sound bases for judging people, understanding of people's interdependence, the willingness to work together as a group and for the best interests of the group, and the desire for the general welfare of people. Miss Miller centered her teaching objectives around three needs common to all persons:

1. *People need love and affection*
2. *People need to belong to a group*
3. *People need to make a living*

Her task then became that of lining up content samples appropriate to the field of art which would illustrate that each need is a part of many different relationships, that it is an important factor in many different situations, and that people may satisfy these needs in a wide variety of ways.

In essence, then, she wanted her teaching of art to introduce ideas about some common factors in all human behavior, to train her pupils to think about human beings in such a way as always to account for differences within unities, and to demonstrate the complexity of human behavior at the same time. This she attempted to do by sampling the varieties of circumstances that accompany the fulfilling of any of the three common needs shown above, as the excerpt from the outline below illustrates:

- A. Affection is a part of many different relationships—man-woman, mother-child, mother-sister, boy-girl, friend-friend.
- B. Affection is important in many different situations—cliques, team, school, class, community, family, church, job.
- C. Some people find the affection they need—in tender human affection, through working together and planning together, in courtship, in companionship.
- D. Some people do not find or do not always have the affection they need—because of separation from those one loves, being snubbed, meeting indifference, moving away.

Miss Miller then proceeded to outline learning experiences for the pupils. In doing this, she selected them so that they contributed to the objectives, and at the same time represented defensible content and experiences in art as a subject for an advanced class. Skillfully she chose these experiences in relationship to the intent of particular art expression so that they represented art appreciation, production and analysis of form, aesthetic qualities, and design.

A sample from the longer list of learning experiences related to her first point, namely, "Affection is a part of many different relationships," follows:

1. Project on the screen pictures which show various kinds of acceptance and rejection of people by people. Have pupils write their reactions to the pictures, to the people in the pictures, and to the situations portrayed.
2. Later, project same pictures on the screen as a focus for class discussion, raising such questions as:
What is the situation?
How are the people responding to the situation?
Have you had similar experiences?
How did you respond to them?
Are these experiences common to all people?
Does the picture give you any understanding or insight that you can apply to your own life?
3. Have pupils make quick sketches of people who feel affection for one another, of people who reject each other; a quick dry brush painting of a high-school flirtation; bring in pictures of boy-girl affection from advertisements and analyze what these ads are appealing to.
4. Project on the screen pictures of madonnas—mother and child pictures, ancient to modern, by various artists from different countries.
Why do these pictures have such a wide-spread appeal?
Why do these pictures live? Why does this type continue to be produced in large quantities?
Is the appeal of these madonna pictures only to Christians?
Do some people not feel this way about their children?
Is it possible for a mother who loves her children very much to desire at times to "wring their necks"?
5. Project on screen other religious pictures which show acceptance and rejection. Pictures done by people of various religions.
6. Pupils divide into groups of four (sociometric groupings) and take turns posing for each other with doll—to model for group to make mother and child paintings.
7. Are there any things about these relationships that an abstract painting could tell? Discussion of abstract paintings. What is the meaning of significant form in painting?
8. Pupils choose partners (sociometric groupings) and paint pairs of abstract pictures of moods produced by acceptance and rejection.

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WHAT AMERICAN WORKERS FACE

**A visit to the Ford plant affords an opportunity to observe
industrial life in America**

9. Have pupils bring in own records of love songs, blues, and listen to them.
10. Sample some of the other art forms to show many ways in which the affection theme may be expressed.

Content and learning activities relating to the other two common needs listed were worked out in similar fashion. Thus, for (2)—“People need to belong to a group”—the content topics chosen were: (1) some people get into the groups to which they want to belong; (2) some people do not get into groups in which they want to belong. The learning activities projected to implement these topics were somewhat as follows: (1) Students were asked to list the different groups to which they belong and then to discuss the different kinds of groups revealed by the listing and why people belong to them. (2) Pictures that show group acceptance and rejection were projected on the screen. (3) Family-group relations as well as peer-group relations were sampled. (4) Cartoons concerning discriminatory practices were drawn. (5) Photo-montages of pupil and group-activities were made for the school annual. (6) Pictures by the social painters such as Bruegel and Hogarth were examined.

CHAPTER III

How to Select and Organize Learning Sequences

IN intergroup education, as we have seen, it is necessary to provide for changing attitudes, extending sensitivity, mastering appropriate ways of thinking and human relations skills, as well as to give facts and understandings. Special attention was paid, therefore, to the selection and organization of learning activities in order to ensure that they would provide simultaneously for these several kinds of learning. This required a more conscious and systematic planning of learning activities than was involved in the traditional method of covering so many pages of a text or digging up a number of facts and topics.

In all units, learning activities had to be specifically worked out, for it was clear that the content topics and focal ideas, however well chosen, could not in themselves define either the psychological sequence for learning or what kind and variety of activities would be most effective with these pupils. In addition, lining up day-by-day isolated activities, which might have sufficed for textbook coverage of topics, was insufficient for teaching ideas and sensitivities since the learning of the latter depends upon a cumulative piling-up of experiences. Teachers had to anticipate what sequence of experiences was needed and be flexible in introducing new activities and in modifying old ones as new pupil needs were revealed.

For high-school teachers, this long-range, many-faceted plan for learning activities was more difficult to develop than for elementary teachers, as the former had come to lean on texts and topics to fix the order of their teaching more than the latter. Before describing some of the learning activities teachers developed, some of the considerations in planning these learning activities will be discussed.

First, activities need to be planned in a sequence most consistent with how pupils learn. The sequence which has proved to be most valuable has

several aspects. The first activities in any unit should provide simple descriptive particulars carefully chosen so as to be readily grasped by the pupil and should make maximum connection with his previous experience. Their function is to produce motivation and involve pupils in the problem. The second level of learning activities necessitates analysis and inquiry, while the third level provides for contrast and comparison. The fourth is designed to elicit generalization and appraisal, and, finally, application. Naturally, all kinds of media play into these steps in learning—relating personal experiences, reading fiction and texts, carrying on investigations, holding group discussions, and so forth.

Many teachers had difficulties in making this sequence workable. They had a tendency to begin units by stating definitions, conclusions, and generalizations. The "pre-digested" nature of many high-school social studies materials supported this tendency. But to do so meant to leave pupils without motivation for inquiry and thinking and with a series of large ideas unrelated to their own experiences and, therefore, relatively meaningless to them. Another habit was that of "covering ground," which often resulted in disposing of each topic too rapidly to permit pupils to arrive at generalizations. "Why" questions were pushed before the "What-is-it" questions had been answered, so that generalizations and judgments were stereotyped, rather than proceeding from examination of data and experience. Finally, many of the teachers thought of learning activities as handy but unrelated gadgets. They did not see the necessity for providing an integral relation between activities and focal ideas. For instance, a committee pattern of work often seemed merely like a useful trick to arouse interest and was used with little regard for its appropriateness or inappropriateness for any given aspect of the content or of the learning sequence in the unit.

Second, each learning sequence has to provide what has come to be called sensitizing experiences—those activities designed to extend insight, to create appreciation of values beyond those that had been acquired in the immediate culture context, and to extend the ability to project oneself into another person's shoes, so to speak. This emphasis, of course, grew out of the fundamental objectives of intergroup education; namely, to extend the individual's capacity to understand and to accept differences in patterns of human behaviors and beliefs. The realization that functional insights in this area come from combining intellectual, factual, and emotional learning also led to this emphasis.

Even after apparently successful sensitizing procedures had been worked out, there were some minor pitfalls. Teachers often found themselves using the same device, such as a reaction story, for different areas of content without exploring new media or working out the next degree of refinement in the technique. Others found themselves providing exclusively for activities designed to sensitize. Where learning sequences had previously provided no sensitizing experiences, teachers frequently began to include that and nothing else. Feelings, opinions, exchange of experiences came to supersede all more factual and objective content. As one teacher who recognized this problem reported, "Since discussions are tending merely to deepen the views already entertained, my problem at present is to find activities which will require fact-finding and cultivate objective views."

Some balance had to be worked out; one team, for example, systematically revised activities in a unit on American people when they taught it a third time so as to develop certain research skills as well as to extend emotional identification with others. Finally, attention had to be paid to the preparation and follow-up necessary if reading and face-to-face contacts were really to sensitize, as well as paid to the distinction between what would develop sensitivity and what would merely shock. It was sometimes a temptation to hope that sharp emotional reactions would do the whole task of changing attitudes and behaviors which, of course, they could not, any more than facts alone could.

A third consideration of the learning sequences is that they should reveal the greater productivity of group method, while still being stimulating to individuals. For intergroup education it was particularly desirable to design classroom experiences to supplement the focal ideas that the content was building. Since the value of group relations and group endeavor was a basic concept, a group pattern of learning rather than an exclusively individual one needed to be developed. This meant testing out how to set up committees, what they could do effectively, how group discussion could be worked out and for what purposes it was best employed, how to incorporate them into the plan of activities. Sometimes difficulty stemmed from a failure to give adequate weight to the value of conscious learnings derived from the methods by which classroom work was accomplished. Thus it was possible to find incongruities, such as teaching the value of group effort, while at the same time providing only for individual learning activities. Most teachers gave this aspect special attention. The illustrations to follow will demonstrate the kinds of tasks suited to group effort, how

the work group was organized, and how sufficient flexibility to enable all pupils to operate within their own capacities was included.

Fourth, it is desirable that learning activities allow for diagnosis. Activities cannot be merely absorptive. They also have to be designed to elicit periodically pupils' own comments, interpretations, reactions, and problems both in written work and in discussion. It is important to gear such expression to problems which will permit assessment of a variety of thinking and expression skills, as well as of attitudes and concepts. This means using questions and themes which allow for personal response and varying assignments so as to necessitate different operations, such as exposition, analysis, criticism, pooling of ideas. The great tendency in this area has been to call for written and oral expression requiring only descriptive exposition; pupils' difficulties in analysis and generalization have not always been adequately assessed as a result.

The following accounts of learning activities illustrate how these considerations directed the learning sequences of several units. Again Tower School will be used as the lead example, since the content of its program, its objectives, and the needs of its pupils have already been given in this discussion.

A LEARNING SEQUENCE FOR THE "PEOPLES OF OUR STATE"

In planning activities for their unit on "Peoples of Our State," the teachers decided that it was important first to combine: (a) exploration and analysis of pupils' personal experiences, (b) study of factual information, and (c) sensitivity-creating experiences, such as reading of fiction and visiting. To start off their unit, therefore:

1. Pupils were asked to bring in stories of people who had come to the city or the state, whether it be themselves, their families, or people they knew.
2. These stories were discussed in the light of why these people had come, where they had settled, and what adjustment they had had to make.
3. The stories were further analyzed as to what range of people they represented and how this range compared with that of the city, state, and nation.

This initial series of learning activities was primarily designed to create an awareness of the problems of newcomers through utilizing the pupils' own experiences and through comparing their experiences with more general information on the same questions.

4. This assignment was followed by reading fiction about the types of people who came to the U.S.A. sampling carefully the early- and late-comers, and the people now well accepted as well as those still on the fringes of American life. This reading was followed by attempts at projection, such as carrying stories to further conclusions or writing an end to an unfinished story.

These two related activities were designed to extend the pupils' emotional identification with problems of adjustment; to give scope to their thought; to expand their sensitivity to a variety of values, problems, and other human differences; and to help them see that common human motivations not unlike their own underlay all such adjustment problems.

5. The fifth step involved pupils in a factual study: reasons that brought people to America; conditions here and in Europe that at different times put people on the move.

It was possible at this point for the pupils to compare the simple reasons they had given in their own stories, such as "he did not like the place he was in" or "he wanted a better job," with textbook generalities of "economic opportunity" or "freedom," and make some sense out of them.

6. The sixth step was to study systematically a series of ethnic groups, trying to answer the same questions they tried to answer in connection with their personal stories. At this point, study of reference books and construction of maps were assigned.
7. Stories were next read about a wider range of people on the move.

Each was discussed by means of a careful scheme of questions, as shown by this excerpt from the teachers' suggestions for studying and discussing the story *New Citizen*, which deals with the adjustment of an immigrant to America.

Ivan and his wife came here because of a dream of America. Are there other reasons besides those mentioned in your own stories for people's coming to America? How did Ivan and Anna hear about America? Does the story seem real? What part of the story do you like best? What were the hopes and desires of Ivan and Anna? How do these compare with those of other people? What difficulties did they have? Were they the same as others had? Did the story give you any new ideas? How was the dream fulfilled?

8. This discussion was followed by projective writing where pupils were asked to carry the stories of people beyond what was given in the books and by a discussion which compared what was learned from books read by different pupils.
9. The final learning sequence involved a factual analysis of the contributions of immigrants as based on the pupils' preceding reading, their own stories, and their reading of new material dealing especially with such contributions.
10. The unit was concluded by a summary of the class's conclusions and the reading of pioneer poems.

A CLASS LOG

The preceding examples have on the whole indicated how to plan for an adequate sequence for learning activities, which take into account how pupils can best develop generalized concepts and how they can acquire new emotional dispositions and awareness of feelings. These latter learnings we have referred to as sensitizing experiences. They are provided by the reading

of fiction, by discussing of such fiction and their own experiences, and by a variety of new experiences.

How these varieties of experiences can be woven into a sequence of teaching and adapted to a particular group of pupils is illustrated by a log which was kept by one of the Tower School teachers from October 12 to February 12 during the class study of the "Peoples of Our State."¹

This teacher kept the log as a means of checking on her own teaching procedures, watching especially to see whether the three elements—acquisition of appropriate information, extension of insight through fiction, and extension of insight through sharing and analyzing—were properly provided for. She was also anxious to see to what extent there was practice of the usual language skills and with what effectiveness they were acquired. The log is a record of three types of things: what happened in the classroom, what the pupils did, and the teacher's comments. It was started after the preliminary study of immigration to "Our State." The class had read the story *New Citizen*, had discussed it in class, and had written a paper on what happened to Ivan and Anna after the story ended. *New Citizen* had brought Ivan and Anna to their fifth year in this country, with Ivan working as a factory worker in New York and still dreaming of succeeding in the new country.

Most of the pupil papers placed Ivan as a ranch owner in Colorado the following year, which revealed a lack of understanding of the problems of immigrants and a lack of knowledge about naturalization laws and the length of time it would take for a person of Ivan's circumstances to become a ranch owner in Colorado. The unreality of these papers prompted the teacher to undertake a sequence of learning activities which would supply the necessary information as well as extend pupil sensitivity towards how it felt to be an immigrant at the time of Ivan and Anna.

The pupils had already chosen the ethnic groups to study and had outlined the questions to explore with each group. The questions were:

- a. What kind of people came to our state?
- b. Why did they come? Where did they go?
- c. What did they find?
- d. What businesses and occupations did they have?
- e. What adjustments did they have to make?
1. The class started out by reading stories in *New Narratives* ("Lady New Luck," "The Milk Pitcher" and "The Whopping Gods") as an induction into the methods of reading necessary for this new purpose. These stories were read by

¹ This log does not record *everything*—just the themes the teacher thought important in connection with intergroup emphasis.

all and discussed in class; they were also meant to provide pupils with better insight into the study of immigrant backgrounds which was to follow.

2. We started from where we left off on October 12. Ivan and Anna stories showed lack of knowledge of naturalization rules, of economic conditions of the country, of immigrants' problems, etc.

Different members of the class volunteered to look up the price of steerage passage at that time. Others read and studied about naturalization laws. Some read the "Gateway to Ellis Island"; others looked up the price of farmland and wages paid to steel workers as a means of improving pupil concepts about the adjustments of immigrants.

Reports made to class and discussions followed. Papers on "What happened to Ivan and Anna?" were revised. Although there was a little improvement in the papers, the knowledge of immigrants was still rather vague. They still wanted to hasten to success and prosperity. So I rested from the effort until they became more sensitive to conditions through reading and stories.

Note that the teacher started with very concrete details about an immigration problem, with opportunity for pupils to verify these details against the question of what happened to Ivan and Anna. This meant that pupils began to mull over the material on immigration with particular questions in mind, thus focusing the inquiry, which is quite different from the frequent practice of sending pupils to look up material without any clear purpose in mind. Also, the teacher, after noticing the unreality of the pupils' papers, had sufficient appreciation of how sensitivity develops to plan further experiences rather than to clamp down with test questions on factual material.

3. Continuation of the study of immigrants to Our State.

Early history of Our City and Our State.

Who came first? Why did they come?

Early beginnings of Our City.

Pupils read *Early History of Our City and Our State* in WPA pamphlets and made a summary to keep in their notebooks. The story of the Germans settling in our state to farm was also read in the *People of Our State*, WPA pamphlet. Conclusion: Early people of Our State were those who came from the East and South and were of early American backgrounds. Immigrants from Europe did not come until the late 1860's and 1870's.

The pupils listened to each other for a whole period, selected the readings themselves, and were very much impressed. They would have liked to continue for another period. The next period, however, poetry books were passed out. They selected poems, which would fit into the unit, to be read aloud. This has still to be continued. However, the reading in the next panel improved somewhat.

We see the teacher here putting in the historic setting, providing for a special study of a story of a group unique in that section, and providing for a summary, as well as for a contrast, between the early- and late-comers.

The poems represent an effort to alternate between factual study and feeling reactions; introduction of the latter had been a bit abrupt because of practical convenience in availability of books at that time.²

4. Committees were formed to look up data about the people of Our City.

Population Trends in Our State started: foreign-born population, native-white, races other than white.

Just a start—scarcity of materials made for slow progress. Committees looked up data from Our State Year Book—1944, reports from Census Bureau, *Population Trends in Our City* and *Spanish-Speaking Peoples*, WPA. This latter distinguishes very carefully between Mexicans, Spanish-Americans, Spanish-speaking peoples. Compares by diagrams assimilation progress between Anglo and Spanish; between Indian and Spanish. I. J. Quillen, *The People and Their Government*, the chapter on Our State was also used. Committees worked on statistics for our city's population for comparison in preparation of a table of various nationalities.

Pupils seemed especially interested in this project. One statistically minded pupil has spent hours at the public library and has hoarded every booklet or pamphlet I could obtain to take home at night. Incidentally, this pupil was one of the weakest in the preparation and submitting of reports last year.

Public Library was most helpful.

We see here how the teacher planned for different groups of pupils to investigate on their own. This plan gave them a chance for rapport in small groups as well as a chance to contribute particular topics towards a larger topic before the class. The log particularizes the sources of material and the directions given to the committees. The teacher's comments record the interests of pupils and suggest that sufficient background had been so built that individual investigations were set in relationship to the task of the whole class.

5. Started plotting maps to show settlements of nationality groups in Our City, also of places where people came from in the United States and the rest of the world.

Most of the information had to be obtained through interviews, until the *Population Trend Magazine* was discovered.

Through interviews with people in other parts of Our State, much information was obtained. Greek Colony in N. W. near or in Heath—also a Basque settlement which is in the sheep-raising business, reported to me by a former pupil living there. Interview with Mr. Canzoni gave me a good idea of the Italian situation.

All statistics were recorded in notebooks before maps were attempted. Much difficulty in finding information.

This excerpt gives another effort to summarize information—this time through visual means. A new source—interviews—is introduced when books

² Several different classes shared the available books.

fail. Had these interviews come earlier, they might have scattered interest and lacked focus. Apparently considerable interaction between teacher and students occurred. Undoubtedly, she provided them direction and audience as she sent them out for further interviewing, while she highlighted what they had done in classroom discussion.

6. *Junior Review* for November 3, 1947, stimulated interest in *Displaced Persons*—Discussion oral and written.

This led to research on immigration laws. Books used—Histories: *The Building of Our Nation*; *America and the New Frontier*; *The History of the American People*, Beard and Bagley; *A History of Our Country*, Halleck Encyclopedia, etc.

Spelling lesson resulting from mistakes on former papers. Everyone in the class read about the immigration laws, their changes, reasons, etc. A committee compiled information obtained from the various books and made a report to the class which stimulated discussion. Each person was asked to write his opinions as to whether Congress should raise the quota in United States. It also aroused an interest in the problem of discrimination against the Jews. Each pupil in the group keeps a complete list in his notebook of words misspelled in class papers.

The introduction of the topic on displaced persons provides an additional concrete example of "newcomers," thus both reinforcing what was learned before, and also providing a new slant from which to re-examine such questions as the restriction of immigration.

7. Digression: Absence to attend a meeting of English teachers. Assignments in *New Narratives*, "The Whopping Gods," "There Are Smiles," to read and to write down their reactions.

Supply teacher had them write reactions, but the pupils wished to discuss them with me after I came back. Discussion—good introduction to sensitizing stories to be read later.

The pupils objected to "The Whopping Gods" on the grounds that the story seemed unfair to orphanages. Some thought it was babyish; others thought that it was too old for them. One said that it violated adoption laws or the writer was ignorant of them.

In "There Are Smiles" the pupil criticism was that it had a sad ending; some inclined to read a romance into it.

Revision of papers, mentioned above, by those who made errors or who did not complete their papers, followed.

This excerpt provides an illustration of how to capitalize on an interruption. The re-writing of papers is an effort to establish standards in writing in a manner integral to the whole effort.

8. Reading to show how immigrants felt about coming to a new country and why they came, obstacles they met, adjustments made.

Seven books, four copies each, were used: *My Mother and I*; *Michael's Victory*; *They Came From Sweden*; *Anything Can Happen*; *Syrian Yankee*; *Let the Hurricane Roar*; *Petar's Treasure*.

Groups were formed according to sociogram made at the first of the semester. However, one backward and shy pupil was put into each group.

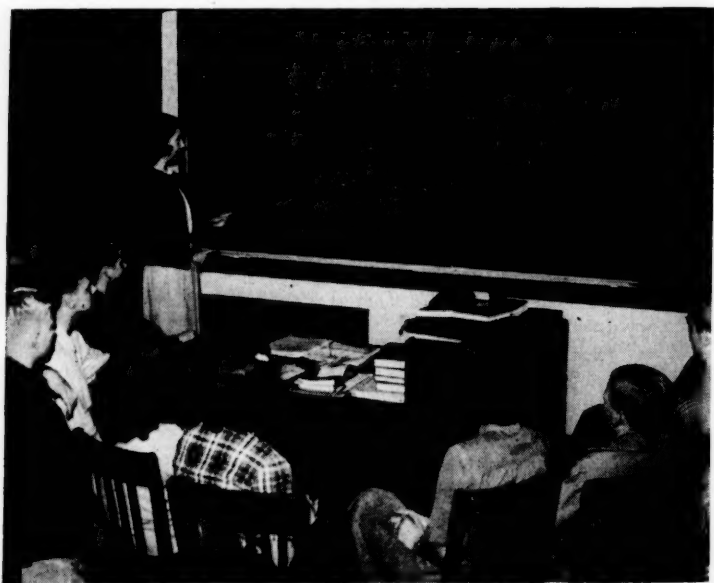
Twenty-nine pupils participated in this study. The remainder read individual books about immigrants or pioneers.

The groups selected the book they wished to read and present. Reading took from a week end to five days. The first panel was given by four boys on *My Mother and I*, a good book to start the study of adjustment. They worked out their own plans. One period was given for presentation; the second, for discussion in class. Pupils discussed the method of presentation as well as the book itself. The librarian, who had helped secure the books, visited the class.

This seemed to be the pupils' first acquaintance with the idea of the Ghetto. They were impressed with the mother's fine influence and with the progress of the girl. Pupils commented on difficulty of the mother to make an adjustment.

At this point, after class-wide experience in reading stories for sensitizing and acquisition of some background information, pupils are more or less

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put on their own. An array of books is being read and reported on. All, however, deal with the adjustment of people to new situations, and all but one deal with immigrants adjusting to new situations. The log shows how groups were formed on a sociometric basis and further indicates how the teacher had located her shy and backward pupils and planned to give them stimulus and level of aspiration that they would not have had if placed together.

9. Follow-up

Although the panel presented the story well, the passages read by the different members showed the need of training in reading aloud to present a story to others. New recordings (recently acquired) were played on both our recording machine (new victrola and the play-back) to show the benefits of fine interpretations. Poems to be read by each pupil were suggested.

Follow-up shows the teacher diagnosing new needs in communication, through a situation where lack of skill in communicating had kept the meaning from coming through. Recordings and reading a poem were used as means of increasing oral-communication skills.

10. (The next sections of the log carry the description of panels and discussion on the rest of the books listed above. A variety of reactions and activities were recorded). Thus, *They Came From Sweden* introduced the panic of 1857, which one pupil outlined and reported to the class. *Michael's Victory* led to more exact locations on maps as well as the discussions of the content between "canalers" and "railroaders." A long discussion and a theme in connection with *Anything Can Happen* created much opportunity for remedial work, for written discussions so that every one could participate, and for much critical comment. Lessons on correct usage, vocabulary drill, also grammar lesson, followed. Apparently, even though specific committees had the responsibility for reporting on one book, the whole class read them at any possible opportunity (there were not enough to go around easily).

When the panels ended, I asked each pupil to write his own conclusions because I wished them to write without influence from anyone.

Interruptions occurred, such as a woman from New York lecturing on diamonds.

11. Committees were set up to study the contributions of the people who have come to Our State; namely, what the different people brought with them as they came.

The class was divided into groups, each group taking one of the foreign-born white nationalities. They chose the work group which they preferred. They searched the library or interviewed people to obtain their information. The chairman of each group compiled results. Two members of the class volunteered to collect all compilations and then to draw conclusions.

This section of the log shows a variety of techniques and skills. Class activities also become a testing ground to see whether skills learned at different places elsewhere could be consolidated so that a committee could

gather and present its material with considerable preciseness and with interest. The experiences in securing further information and in generalizing from it are carefully alternated.

12. More extensive study of Jewish contributions. Different members of the class were asked to write or work on different kinds of contributions—art, music, business, philanthropy, *etc.*

Library work. Several people worked on this. Our library contains much material about the Jews, their work, problems, *etc.* One group in the class worked on this problem. Of course, comparisons with the contributions of art, music, philanthropy, business, finance, industry, farming, *etc.*, were made for all of the United States. However, we found some well-known people of Our City in each one of these categories. *Work* was stressed as perhaps the chief contribution by all. These, too, were compiled.

Open discussions were very frank. The girl who claimed she had an inferiority complex on account of her religion told me privately that these open reports had helped her much. One girl said to me, "I wish you'd talked to my mother. I think the Jews are as good as we are. I have several girl friends who are Jews but Mother would disown me if she knew. She told me tonight that if I ever went with a Jewish boy, I'd lose my home."

It is interesting to note that in this study of Jewish people, work was stressed rather than artistic achievement or financial ability. This permitted the inclusion of the Jews with other immigrants in a real way and avoided pointing them up as a special group, thus giving basis to stereotypes. Anecdotal record on this section indicates that the Jewish pupils felt free to bring out some of their private feelings about being set apart on account of their cultural background. It indicated, too, that the Gentile pupils were beginning to consider their relationships to the Jewish pupils and to formulate new judgments even though on a rather elementary level, such as opinions that "Jews are as good as we are!" The comment quoted at length also includes an objective awareness that parents would not approve of new friendships with Jewish pupils.

13. An assignment was given to trace the influence of the immigrants in the homely things of everyday life: the foods we eat, the clothes we wear, the songs we sing, the games we play, the ornaments we have, the tools we use, the stories we remember, the words we use, the names we have, *etc.*

This proved most interesting to the pupils. They worked in groups of three and were most eager to make their reports, especially the group that worked on sports. The chairman of the study made a most interesting report by illustrating a booklet with pictures cut from advertisements. Her whole family became interested and helped in the search.

The teacher apparently saw the difference in impact between the contributions of big names and the common daily contributions by common

everyday people. Around the latter, the cumulative contributions of many kinds of immigrants could be integrated. It is interesting to see also that this kind of arrangement gives some pupils—those labeled most gifted in some schools—a chance to do intensive work on a particular point where their interest and initiative are challenged, while the whole class is doing less extensive projects. This illustrates one way of using a heterogeneous group so that the resources found are developed by the more able members of the group, become accessible to the whole group, and stimulate perhaps even the less involved pupils to want to do more. Furthermore, the concrete evidence of this particular study—a booklet with pictures, cuts, and advertisements—is not in a sense beyond the organizational power and the interest level of pupils often regarded as dull average. Finally, this excerpt shows that not only the pupils but also their families have become involved in the school program.

14. In our final discussions of "Contributions" one of the pupils brought the poem (written by a Jewish woman) inscribed on the Statue of Liberty. What poems do you know or have read which tell what the pioneers have brought or how they felt?

Books of pioneer poems were given to the class to read—three complete sets and parts of other sets. They read for thought.

Each member had an opportunity in following recitation periods to read the selected poems. For the first time, they really read poetry. They were trying to get the thought. This gave opportunity to teach other qualities of good verse. Several reported that they would like to memorize the poems and recite them to the class. They were helped by using recordings of good recitations. Even the boys who generally dislike memorizations volunteered.

Here we see the return to poetry, as one form of sensitizing material. The motivation of the teacher was to see what pupils brought to the poetry in terms of sensitivity and their capacity to relate ideas and feeling after the preceding experiences. This use of poetry as a testing ground for awareness and sensitivity gained elsewhere is a new kind of use. In other words, what pupils project upon a poem and what they see in it is a test, not of their general experience with life as is the general reading of poetry, but a test of a particular kind of learning situation set up over several months. Furthermore, they examined anthologies of poems, selecting what poetry they were interested in through whatever sensitivity they had acquired in interpreting the relationship of a particular poem to the subject matter. Form is thus taught in relation to thought and to the general body of feeling that the poem carries. Such use of poetry gives the teacher an opportunity to take the role of explainer in helping

pupils to interpret the words and the meaning of a particular verse, and also allows her to give them something about the techniques of good verse.

15. A specific lesson on pioneer poems using *North Star Shining*, on contributions of the Negro.

For preparation and as a library lesson, each pupil was given one of the names mentioned in the poem to look up.

The pupils looked up the names for identification only. This made them interested in other Negroes besides Booker T. Washington and George Washington Carver. It was just one period's assignment, but some found interesting books and wanted to report further.

The reading of *North Star Shining* followed.

I called the roll of names given on page 28 of the book, and the pupils responded by identifying those they had looked up. Then I read the poem aloud. After the reading, perfect silence for a minute and a half. Then the most argumentative boy in the class said, quietly, "It's every bit true." It sized up the Negroes' contributions so well that the pupils didn't need to do research.

The use of *North Star Shining* at this point attacked two things at once. Beautiful illustrations and a very simple explanation of the contributions put together in a childlike form made the book essentially a beautiful picture book written with a sense of gratitude toward a group. Librarians sometimes class this book as near sentimentality. However, very few casual readers fail to be moved by some one picture or illustration in it. The use of this book at this particular time gathers together many elements that previously have been taught separately and adds to these something of a symbol of these contributions and of the significance of great individuals. Between the lines of this excerpt one can see the warm reaction—from pupil to pupil and from teacher to pupils. They are learning to react and to report as a group to a group, and yet retain their individuality.

16. Study of biography—growing out of the biographies read in connection with *North Star Shining*.

This study was introduced by the pupils themselves. Some were reading *George Washington Carver, Up From Slavery, Railroad to Freedom, Angel Mo, and Her Son* and asked if I wished a report. This was a good time to show how to study the biography. Those who had already read biographies stayed with me in my room, while the others went to the library for library period. They selected the biographies of their choice with the guidance of the librarian. In my room, we worked out a plan for the reading and studying of many biographies with each pupil working on a different one. What do they tell? In what respect are they alike? What achievements, obstacles, influences, childhood influences, etc., do they record? Each then reported and we had also discussions. Those who went to the library met the next week to draw a plan for their study of biography.

They all chose interesting, worth-while biographies. The two different groups developed the study in different ways, one through an outline; the other, through a work sheet. By now, they were used to studying people, and several gave their own opinions very well.

The recording "Empty Pedestals" was in the building and was played. These biographies on records not only added much interesting new history, but also added pointers to our reports on biography.

The pupils thought they "followed" well the plans that we had laid out in our work sheets.

This biography "lesson" was an unexpected development, but handy in introducing another form of literature. A greater independence in methods of study can be noted. No longer was it necessary to read one biography in class in order to learn how to read it, as was the case when fiction was introduced earlier in the year. The pupils and the teacher together worked out those questions which will give them an opportunity to discuss the biographies, even though each pupil studied a different one. At this point, one may note that the pupils are always working in different kinds of groupings—sometimes in groups of four, sometimes in groups of three, sometimes half the class on this, half the class on that. In other words, within the context of whatever is happening, there is a constant opportunity for different patterns of interaction to be set up by the pupils. One can see the constant motivation of a community of interests: two of us want to do this—four of us want to do that. It is interesting, too, to know whether and to what extent the pupils in this class had developed the maturity to read some of the books on the list; many of the books are usually placed at the high-school level.

17. For the completion of Unit I, pupils were asked to think about the five points in the content outline of the unit: (1) Which people have come to Our State? (2) Why have they come? (3) What have they brought with them? (4) What have they found here? (5) What adjustments have they made?

What have we learned about these points? What ideas have been brought out? What ideas have you gained? No discussion was held in class, or at least very little, because I wanted the conclusions to be their own. They were then asked to write conclusions of their own. In addition, the group comprising those with art talent (*Scrollers*) were assigned to make posters illustrating each point.

This seemed most difficult for some. They wanted to give statistical facts that they had collected in their notebooks. (Notebooks had been examined by the teacher to see if they had kept a vocabulary and the required knowledge from their research for future references.) Not until everyone had handed in his summary did we discuss or review the unit as a whole and compare our ideas with others and with the content ideas as set up in the unit. The *Scrollers* divided themselves into groups of two to work on the individual posters.

They were excused from the recitation period to go to an unoccupied room to complete the posters after they had made outlines of their plans and presented them.

My student teacher who has been with me since the middle of January supervised the art work. He stayed with them during the outlining period and helped with suggestions when they were completing them.

This record in the log shows how a teacher tried to consolidate the learning about a topic area: pupils were asked to think about the main points which had guided their study throughout, for re-thinking and a summary. These were not discussed in class, so that each pupil could draw his own conclusions. This device gave the teacher a chance to see the range of learning and generalization within the group as well as to evaluate the particular growth of each individual pupil.

It is important to see that the posters asked pupils to go through the same process that the discussion of conclusions asked for. The log shows that the discussion of conclusions was difficult because many pupils tended to give back the kinds of facts that they had probably found were satisfactory answers in other situations and as the only tangible thing they had gathered from their notebooks. They needed help in generalizing at this point. There could be no question that the posters assisted in their deriving generalizations since, to make them, the pupils were obliged to generalize, discuss it with their classmates, and then to translate the concept into symbolic pictures that would communicate to the whole class what they hoped to say.

18. We had decided to have pupils keep diaries of their daily lives outside school. The writing of these diaries opened up problems of structure, form, spelling, vocabulary. Corrections of language and spelling connected with the assignment of the diaries were part of these last sessions. Material for this drill was found in errors made in papers, in lists of vocabulary found in the stories read, and mistakes in grammatical structure found in papers. In this particular study, the need varied so much that the class was divided into *Scribblers* (advanced writers), *Scrollers* (artists), *Searchers* (those who need encouragement to find and read books), and *Strivers* (those very weak in form).

The *Scribblers* enjoyed doing creative work. They wrote compositions without a special assignment and came to me for conference or handed in papers for correction. The *Searchers* were trying to visit the library more, to meet to discuss books, etc. I drilled the *Strivers* who were earnest and asked for drill in spelling, grammar, form, etc. They all seemed contented in their particular group. (They did not sit in this arrangement.)

At the end, the log remarks on evaluation—indicating that the teacher used the following means: conclusions written by pupils, posters of content outline, written work of pupils, reactions to the stories—and showed responses

made by pupils when talking to her before and after school. A few anecdotes may illustrate this last evaluation:

Betty said to me one day, "Do you know I've become more tolerant than I used to be, although I thought I was tolerant before. I watch what I say more."

Bill sauntered up to me one morning while I was writing a lesson on the board. "Do you remember you suggested that we should broaden our associations with people? Well, I'm learning, I invited a girl in another class to go to a party with me."

A mother said to me, "My husband has to be careful what he says around Nancy. She always invites the unpopular girl first to her parties, too."

The stubborn boy who was the only one who seemed to resist the assignments in the Intergroup Study by writing "smart-aleck" reports is much interested in becoming a good writer. He showed strength and is really very good at writing compositions. He conforms well now and has been elected vice-president of the Boys' League.

One girl said, "I feel I can do a better job of *Ivan' and Anna*, and voluntarily."

The groups are accepting the study more wholeheartedly as they go deeper into it. One said, "I didn't know there was so much in it."

The anecdotes show that the pupils are beginning to confide to the teacher the ways they think they have changed and grown. They are beginning to make their behavior consistent with such generalizations as: "We should be tolerant," "We should include unpopular people." They are beginning to distinguish what they had done in class that had later influenced the lifting of their general behavior up to that level.

A new unit "The Inequality of Opportunity Among the People of Our State" was introduced.

1. Read "The Kiskis" from *The Interlocking World*.

The pupils read this story aloud in class, as there was a book for each one. Much appreciation by each member after the story was read. Reactions were many but not particularly varied. All agreed that not until the people in the story were leading in an enterprise in which the other pupils were not recipients did they change their inferiority feeling of "not belonging."

Discussion then followed on such points as: What were the factors which kept the Kiskis from entering into friendly relationships with their school-mates? The pupils discussed the lack of employment or the poor employment of the father, the clothes resulting, food, etc. This led to other factors which might influence a feeling of "not belonging" or "discrimination."

The teacher here used a story as an introduction of the new unit with the purpose of sensitizing the pupils to the inequalities and opportunities existing among people of their state. These pupils had little comprehension of these facts according to information from the diagnosis. The story served both as a sensitizing and as a diagnostic device. The reactions to the story

indicate that the pupils were responding to the main situation presented but were not able to identify themselves and their sense of not belonging with these highly underprivileged pupils. The discussion of the contributing factors forced the pupils to isolate from their own experience all things that were connected with being poor. Probably these factors were more or less pulled out of their own feelings towards people who did not belong rather than from any deeper sense of what being a stranger or a newcomer to the group might mean.

2. A story "Not Wanted" was read to the class. It concerns a boy in a boarding school whose father didn't write to him. Misunderstandings between father and son were eventually ironed out.

The pupils were quick to react to this story. Some who criticized some of the stories in the *New Narratives* said, "That was great." Nothing was said by the teacher until all reactions were given by the class. Out of forty-three, thirty-seven pupils participated.

A quiet girl who very seldom volunteered any comment said, "I am afraid of my father. He is good to us but, like the father in the story, he is all business. He doesn't have much time for us."

For the reasons given above, the teacher has followed with another story, also about being left out, but not complicated by poverty. It was laid in a setting with which her pupils could more readily identify themselves as a boy in a boarding school. This story involves a misunderstanding between a father and a son as individuals, whereas the subject matter in the Kiskis story had been about misunderstanding between two groups of people. In this case, as in the earlier case, the teacher asked for and allowed spontaneous reactions to flow. Apparently participation was now much higher.

3. The reactions of these two stories brought out discussions of how it feels to be "out of the picture" or to be shut out from some privilege related to belonging in some way.

A writing assignment: Have you ever felt that you didn't belong? Write a composition telling about it. If you haven't had such an experience, make up a story.

This was done in class, so that suggestions could not come from the home or friends. The results were varied. Some told how they felt, "They didn't belong" at first and then succeeded, but did not tell why. It was made clear that these papers were to be held in the strictest confidence. They proved to be a "revelation" to the teacher.

After three years with these pupils, I thought I knew them, especially after I had read their diaries, been invited into the homes, knew their mothers. Four of the papers suggested to me that perhaps the study of intolerance had better begin right here. I had private interviews with three of these. One who claimed she had felt she "didn't belong" because she felt inferior (she is Jewish) has

just recently been selected president of the Girls' League. During a conference with a few of the most popular girls in the class, I mentioned that I was afraid some of the girls in the group were being "elbowed out." They were quite frank about it. Although no names were mentioned, they knew who the girls were that were not fully accepted and they took a great share of responsibility. One girl from the orphans' home with a very unfortunate background has had a decided change in appearance and attitude as a result. One of her companions who is accepted has helped her with her hair (to whose untidiness the girls had objected). She now comes every day with her locks brushed and shiny. I haven't noticed any patronizing on the part of the girls, but they have quietly tried to help her to belong. She certainly takes her part in class discussions, and she told me that she is going back home, there to live with her mother and "make good."

The use of the assignment "I Didn't Belong" contributes to further analysis of feelings of some people who don't belong. The assignment is given in a permissive way so that pupils may tell it as their own experience. Those who may not want to identify themselves are free to tell about themselves under the guise of "making up a story." It is important to note that the assignment was given after several days of discussion and reading so that pupils were prepared for some personal writing and that they were assured the papers were to be kept in strictest confidence. This is a kind of therapeutic use of composition which teachers need to interpret rather carefully in relation to individuals. At this point, the comment of the teacher is very significant. She says that the compositions were a revelation to her and that they were a considerable surprise because she had thought she knew these pupils well. The entries in the log at this point show that the teacher was beginning to recognize groups of pupils who thought they didn't belong and who were being elbowed out, but who also had access to and could talk with those who were doing the "elbowing." These little talks probably meant that the popular people began developing a greater sense of responsibility than before and that they began to help others, instead of expecting them to make all the adjustments.

4. A second series of reaction stories.

The class divided into groups to give panel discussions on a second set of reaction stories.³ (This had to be done in shifts as there were only two sets of books for the four teachers.) Many of the pupils had read all five books. The pupils were enthusiastic about these books, especially *Tradition* and *Willow Hill*. I regret that there were not more stories for boys, although the boys like *Tradition* very much.

These stories were planned in sufficient variety to introduce these rather complacent youngsters to the human problems.

³ *Tradition*, *Willow Hill*, *Keystone Kids*, *The Moved Outers*, and *Teresita of the Valley*.

5. Starting to plan a bus trip to see the housing conditions in Our City. Bad weather, however, prevented my going further because we couldn't plan the time. Committees appointed to work on plans, however.

We tried to plan as a whole group and finally decided that having a smaller group to make initial plans would be better. This committee then presented its plans to be amended or completed by the whole class.

These plans were being made for a third series of sensitizing experiences; namely, direct observation of conditions unknown to these pupils and an opportunity to meet the kinds of people they did not know too well. Unfortunately, the recorded log stops at this point. The trips have been reported as turning out to be most rewarding — in terms of the pupils' feeling reactions, raising further questions, and integrating the kind of orientation to people and their predicaments that the stories had started.

ADAPTING INSTRUCTION TO READING ABILITIES

Different levels of learning ability are represented in most classroom groups. Hence, in order for all in the class to arrive at similar learning goals, it is important to provide parallel paths of learning toward those goals appropriate for each ability level.

A description of the ways in which one teacher planned learning experiences for a course in social studies may be a useful example of such provision. Here was a grade-seven group of boys, all "slow learners," but at different levels of "slowness." Her pupils had a great deal of difficulty in grasping abstract ideas, particularly from the printed page. She felt it was especially important to plan learning activities for these pupils which would draw upon their own actual experiences.

The seventh-grade social studies unit was on the topic of immigration. The teacher chose to outline the course in terms of the patterns of immigration to the large cosmopolitan eastern city in which the school and the pupils' homes were located.

One of the topics covered the nationality and racial groups then living in the city. The variety of backgrounds represented by these groups was introduced to the boys by asking them to list the nationalities suggested by last names, by statistics from daily newspapers, and so on. This assignment was followed by showing films such as "You and American Life," "Peoples of Europe," in which different nationality groups were depicted—such as those of Poland, Germany, and Hungary—and by trips into the community.

These preliminary activities were followed by a study of the chapters in their text that had to do with "our country" and "our people." They were then introduced to the idea that "all Americans are foreign" through the reading and discussion of Arna Bontemps' *Sad-Faced Boy*, Emma Gelder

Sterne's *Incident at Yorkville*, and Frank Sinatra's "Let's Not Forget We're All Foreigners" reprinted from *Readers Digest*, July, 1945.

Because of the boys' difficulty in grasping abstract ideas from the printed page, the teacher planned a discussion procedure which would lead them step by step from the vague-to-them ideas in books to meaningful-for-them generalizations and personal feeling about those generalizations. One of the lists of discussion questions, which she based on the article by Frank Sinatra, can serve as an example of her approach.

1. Discuss use of word "dirty" in connection with themselves by having them relate experiences when they were doing a job and got dirty.
2. Teacher relates such an experience.
3. Teacher connects dirty with her nationality background—"dirty Mick."
4. Let each boy connect word "dirty" with his nationality background.
5. Ask them how they feel when word "dirty" describes their nationality background.
6. Substitute word "greasy" or "stingy" and repeat 4 and 5.
7. Decide if words give a true picture—why not?
8. Place list of words such as "dirty," "greasy," "stingy" on the board and tell them that that is the way Frank Sinatra in his story "Let's Not Forget We're All Foreigners," says people use these words to tell something about a person they cannot see.
9. Boy reader begins and reads first paragraph, followed by short discussion of "Why Frank Sinatra was called a Dago."
10. Another boy reads paragraph two of story, and a short discussion of "What idea is Mr. Sinatra going to show in his story?" follows.
11. Have a boy write answer on board.
12. When paragraphs 3, 4, 5, and 6 of the article are read, have four or more readers who will re-read paragraphs, substituting "greasy Wop," "stingy Jew," "dirty Mick," "dirty American," "stubborn Polack," "dumb Dago."
13. Discuss how little Dick would be hurt in each of the above situations.
14. Teacher will read paragraph 5, column 2, because of difficulty of words; but before reading she will ask the class to write down what each boy thinks is the important idea of the paragraph.
15. Another boy reader continues with paragraph 7 of column 2—followed by discussion: What reasons does Mr. Sinatra give for saying there are no essential differences in any two people of different race?
16. Teacher will read paragraph 3, column 1, page 2. Have boys use dictionaries to find meanings of "prejudice" and "jaundice" if necessary. What other paragraphs in this story showed a person who has prejudices?
17. Another boy will continue to read paragraph 4, column 1. Follow with discussion of why Mr. Sinatra makes fun of choosing friends by color of skin test. (Illustrate, if possible, in class with boys who are friends.) Discuss what are two better ways of choosing friends than the color test. Teacher will relate incident of why color test would eliminate some of her friends—Chinese and Audrey.

18. Another reader reads paragraph 5, followed by discussion on "Why didn't the mother want her boy to play with Sammy Levine?"
19. Which sentence tells why the mother who wouldn't let her son play with Sammy Levine did a "terrible thing"?
20. Substitute names of various boys of different nationalities in class for Sammy Levine and then read. Continue until all boys have been eliminated, leaving "boy" with no one to play with. Discuss what they think of choosing friends because of nationality. Why would this way be a poor one in America?
21. Another reader continues. Follow with discussion of "What news does Mr. Sinatra say we should give people who dislike other people because they are foreigners?" Why is this good advice? What does Mr. Sinatra say is our job in America?
What word can you substitute for prejudice? Who built America? What are two reasons why, Mr. Sinatra says, people do not grow up equal? What is environment? (Use dictionary.) Can you think of a way environment changes a plant? Can you think of two changes environment would make in a person?
22. Place in your notebook these words: prejudice, atrocities, environment.

Another area in which she used this approach was in laying out assignments of different difficulty in connection with any one piece of work. In planning these assignments, she felt it was a necessity to provide points common to all levels so that whole class discussion would be possible and so that each pupil could feel he was making a contribution to a common problem. The assignments she gave her class in connection with the third topic in the unit, "Forces that aid or hinder the new and old immigrants in getting settled in our city, and in the U.S.," illustrate her method.

Study of this topic was begun with the teacher's oral reading of *Our Country and Our People*, from which she selected such story excerpts as "Story of Dominic," "Story of an Iowa Farm Boy," which emphasize the problems involved in language difficulty. Pictures of Negro-Americans, Jewish-Americans, Italian-Americans were shown and the differences in their clothes discussed. The question was raised as to how good a criterion clothes are in determining who is and who is not an American.

These activities were followed by stories which raised such questions as: Why do some people dislike new immigrants? Why do some people dislike persons new on a job? How do they show their dislike? The boys were asked to write stories themselves on "How my brother felt when cheated in a foreign country," "How I felt when I was cheated."

Finally, a poster, "They Got the Blame," was discussed. It was chosen because it was readable to all the pupils. On it, the teacher based three assignments having common points and common goals but geared to three different learning levels. A cartoon pamphlet was similarly studied.

Minimum level

Cartoon-pamphlet: "They Got the Blame"

Directions:

1. Read silently material in picture on page 1 and in first two pictures on page 2.
2. Try to answer these questions:
 - a. How old is the scapegoat trick?
 - b. What three things did the Nazis do to use the scapegoat trick?
 - c. Whom did the people of India blame for the epidemic of cholera?
 - d. Use the dictionary to find the meaning of *epidemic* and *cholera*.
 - e. What are the two epidemics people of our city have?
 - f. What do people of today blame for epidemics?
 - g. Why was the buffalo a scapegoat?

Average Assignment:

Directions: Get from the library, *Richer Ways of Living*, Wilson, Wilson, and Erb (American Book Company, New York City). Read pages 219-223.

- a. What did the jungle people believe caused disease?
- b. How did the medicine men try to get rid of disease? Page 221.
- c. What are two reasons men change their ideas about "charms," "devil spirits," "medicine men" curing disease?
- d. What really causes disease?
- e. What kinds of people use scapegoats?

Maximum Assignment:

Directions: Which of the following situations shows the old scapegoat trick and why?

- a. When people blame an animal for a disease and drive him into the woods.
- b. When people try to find out the cause of sickness.
- c. The boys of a 7B class lost the basketball game because they did not co-operate with each other or their captain. The score was 4-5 in the last quarter when Tony missed in trying to make a basket. The members of the team and the boys of the class blamed Tony for losing the game.
- d. John often stays out late to see a movie twice. The next morning he does not get up when his sister calls. He misses his regular street car. He is ten minutes late to school. He gets a tardy slip and so does his home-room teacher. John blames his sister, his school, his teacher because he has a ninth-period class for his tardiness.
- e. When we try to decide all the reasons why a thing has happened.
- f. People who use only one cause for their trouble.
- g. Joe rides his new bicycle from his street into the main street when the policeman is not on duty. It is fun to ride swiftly downhill without applying the brakes. Last Saturday, Joe rode down swiftly but forgot to look for oncoming traffic. He rode into a slowly moving truck. He bent the frame of his bicycle, wrecked a tire, and had three stitches taken in his head. Joe blamed the driver of the truck.

Similar kinds of assignments were developed for the study of scapegoating in connection with The Early Christians, The Witches of New England, The Catholics, The Negroes, The Jews, as presented in "They Got

The Blame," Riots Against Catholics in 1834, Ku Klux Klan (past and present), Hitler's persecution of the Jews.

Always the emphasis was on the common problem; always the presentation of the problem was made through something that was simple; and always multiple connections were made for the pupils to aid them in grasping the central idea. Always, also, a careful sequence was planned from the simpler, more comprehensible illustrations of an idea, to the more complex, abstract, or remote. It is worth noting, also, that a variety of examples of scapegoating, for instance, was included. This consideration helped prevent their associating the phenomenon with but one group and assured their development of a proper perspective toward it.

A SEQUENCE FOR AN "ORIENTATION" UNIT

Instruction in group relations does not always involve the development of generalizations and concepts on an abstract plane about the groups in society, people of America, and so on. Often the personal experiences of the pupils themselves may serve as the focusing point for instructional practice.

The units on "Orientation," which usually appear in the seventh grade in junior high schools or in the ninth grade in senior high schools, are illustrations of such an effort. These courses usually deal with the behavior of the pupils in school and the problems of adjustment to a new situation, of getting along with people, of growing up, of trying to understand themselves and others.

The teachers of the Tower School decided to replan its orientation unit on the basis of the information about the adjustment needs that they had derived from their diagnostic program⁴ in order to give pupils more opportunities for interaction with each other on a broader base, to provide them with the kinds of reading and instruction which would help make their social experience more cosmopolitan and their patterns of acceptance wider and more sophisticated. Hence, the stated objectives of the course were: to develop socially and personally, to learn how to get along with oneself and with others, to recognize the value and to learn the ways of making friends, to relinquish gradually dependence on parents and adults and to assume greater responsibilities, to have the opportunity to broaden interests, to participate in democratic practices through the school government, and to share with others the opportunity to serve.

The whole orientation unit was then revised to serve these objectives. For example, pupils were introduced to the physical plant by older pupils

⁴ See pages 17-18 for conclusions regarding needs discovered.

welcoming them and taking them around. These were the 7A grade pupils who usually "razzed" the newcomers, but could not do much of that in their new roles as hosts and hostesses. Early in the course, reading assignments which dealt with adjustment to a new school were begun by using Nancy Barnes' *The Wonderful Year* and Clara Judson's *Petar's Treasure*. The pupils practiced required school routines in class—filling out various slips, choosing courses, and so on. They discussed rules and traditions and their functions.

A large portion of the unit was called "Trudging Along Together" and was dedicated to learning about themselves, their school companions, and others. This teacher felt she should utilize the pupils' own experiences in school in her planning for their personal and social development—in expanding the feelings, ideas, and skills involved in getting along and working together. Accordingly, she formulated the following core ideas to guide her:

1. People get along better when they learn to understand each other through working and playing together.
2. School activities play an important part in our lives.
3. Personal growth is nurtured through right use of leisure, by appreciation of the beautiful, and through wise solution of individual problems.
4. By showing concern for others, one is helping himself to grow.
5. Sharing with others means giving of yourself as well as money.

To accomplish her objective of developing personal growth in the above sense, she combined a variety of learning experiences. First, she had a discussion around the question of enjoying pleasant companions: "As we trudge on our trip through seventh grade, you will experience more satisfaction and understanding if you know each other better." What are some of the things you would like to know about your classmates?

1. Who gets along with whom?
2. Who are new? Who are old?
3. What can they do?
4. Who can help whom?
5. With the help of pupils, complete the list and write them on the board (travel, talents, ambitions, unusual opportunities).

This was followed by an "I Introduce Myself" program patterned somewhat on what came out of the discussion. The writing of several compositions on topics so selected that the teacher could learn more about her pupils followed. At the same time, this assignment also provided practice in several kinds of writing. They filled in the activities questionnaire prepared by the staff for use in the whole school; they wrote autobiographies and the diaries described, page 14. At the same time, they read books which

dramatized problems of getting along together and described a variety of things people can find and cherish in one another. The plan for this section of the unit given below describes the emphasis and the method:

1. Let's learn by "doing" together

The reading of books which involve human relations is a good way to help the pupils understand problems of others. There are various methods of doing this with the class.

a. Panel discussions

Have three or four pupils read the same book and then meet to prepare to present it to the class. The story is just briefly outlined; the stress is laid on human relationships found in the story.

Suggested list of human relations books:

Old Con and Patrick, Ruth Sawyer

The People Upstairs, Phyllis Côté

The Young Barbarians, Helen Satterly (this may be a little advanced for most of the class)

Adopted Jane, Helen Daringer

Linda Marsh, Adele L. DeLeeuw

Blue Willow, Doris Gates

Out to Win: A Baseball Story, Mary Bonner

All-American, Tunis

Dandelion Cottage, Carroll Rankin

Granite Harbor, Dorothy Bird

A number of short stories can be found in anthologies such as:

Adventures in Appreciation, Cook, Loban, McCall

A Challenge to Understand, Cook, Loban, McCall

Stories may also found in magazines, such as *The New Yorker*, *Harpers*, and *The Atlantic*.

b. Another way is to take a human-relations situation from one or several of the books and read it aloud to the class.

c. Another way is to have the pupil tell the story briefly, dwelling principally on the relation of one person to another in the story. Select different points to be brought out.

Discussions should follow the presentation of any of these stories; reactions.

Sometimes these may be written in answer to the teachers' questions and discussed afterwards. Sometimes oral discussions follow immediately.

Discussion questions:

What relationships are there in the story?

How do the people in it get along?

What did they get from each other?

What were they able to do together that they could not do alone?

What do we need to know to get along with adults?

Through this method, several elements of good learning were com-

combined into one sequence. Pupils began to look at themselves and at each other as functioning persons with characteristics and behaviors which affected their getting along together. They began to perceive in others characteristics not hitherto seen, to acquire human-relations values, and to become sensitive to interpersonal problems not previously perceived.

Their classroom experiences combined individual effort with group interaction in such a way as to demonstrate how the individual can work efficiently and co-operatively in a group setting towards common ends; for example, each person read a different book, tried to answer the same questions everyone was trying to answer, and pooled reactions through discussion.

The focus for all their activities was the relationship between what they were doing and themselves right here and now. Each experience was so introduced as to create in the pupils an awareness of their needs, the needs of pupils in general, and relevant objectives. Each experience combined understanding, attitudes, and skills.

CHAPTER IV

How Sensitizing Experiences Help Learning

TO develop sensitivity to and understanding of new people and new situations, it is often necessary to provide the learner with face-to-face contacts. This is especially important in areas where previous emotional blocks or prejudices may be interfering with learning.

A variety of explorations by teachers have begun to reveal the principles by which direct experiences can be planned for maximum educational value. Perhaps the most important one is that these experiences be in the context of a larger learning sequence, rather than be isolated events. Second, more learning occurs if groups or individuals engage in common activity than in situations where one group watches another one perform. Thus, a joint activity achieves more than, for example, an assembly program which one group puts on for another. Third, in any intergroup situation where the group to be met is not known, it is important to personalize contacts, that is, to construct the situation so that individuals can meet each other. Fourth, if at all possible, contacts need to be around content that gives an equal advantage to both parties.¹ Often, when difficult bridges are to be crossed in these contacts, pretraining is necessary to help participants envision "the other party" and to avoid negative emotional reactions or any untoward incidents by practicing ways to behave in the situation ahead of time. Methods of pre-training are discussed in Chapter V.

This section will describe several learning activities in which active learning experience was related to study assignments. The examples chosen are somewhat fragmentary, but the purpose here is merely to sample what may be called successful direct experiences sufficiently to reveal the unique aspects which in our opinion fostered greater understanding of other groups.

¹ For example, to send linguistically handicapped Spanish-American pupils to an oratorical contest with the "Anglos" is ineffective in helping "Anglos" gain respect for the Spanish speaking youth.

STARDUST CAFE TEACHES GROUP RELATIONS

In one school, the eleventh-grade pupils were to analyze a series of communities as part of a course in American culture. For each community studied, they were to try to assess what the people are like, what their interests and values are, and to what extent the community is satisfying their needs. The pupils began with a study of their own school community. Early in their analysis, it became clear that many pupils felt their school provided too few opportunities for associations which cut across grade and small social clique lines. Even though some of them had spent a long period in the same school and even in the same classroom, the teachers were aware that they tended to view each other from a distance, and to assign characteristics and motivations to one another, often with little foundation in fact. The pupils agreed that the school supplied too few recreational opportunities.

The class decided to hold a party which would make up for both of the deficiencies that had been discovered in the school community. All planning beforehand and work for it were done on a co-operative basis. The result was "Stardust Cafe," a "night-club" style party in the school gymnasium to which all pupils were invited. Small candle-lit tables were placed around the floor; there was an orchestra and dancing; a full scale floor show and a male chorus line performed; pupils acted as waiters, hat-check girls, and attendants at a "coke bar." The whole event was planned and put on by the class. They were asked to write papers afterwards on the experience. Although they were not specifically asked to identify what they had learned or gained, many did so.

The learnings these pupils described seemed to derive chiefly from (a) having worked together, (b) having contributed to the project, (c) the successfulness of a group undertaking. The following excerpts from their papers are samples of the learnings they described.

A. Learnings from having worked together:

My experience gave me greater faith in the goodness of people.

1. But the greatest part of all about it was the better understanding the class got of people. Being in the class that put it on was a great help to me. After seeing them work so hard to put it on, it bettered my faith in humanity.
2. I volunteered to work in the check room. . . . When Friday night came I had a date. . . . When the two girls with whom I was to work found out that my date had to wait while I helped them, they said, "Nothing doing, we can manage it alone. You go in and have a good time." . . . It was a hard job for

I learned the value and the techniques of working with others to accomplish a common purpose.

It showed the importance of each member's contribution.

It resulted in improved interpersonal and intergroup relations.

Working together revealed similarities and common interests we didn't know existed.

only two people to handle, but they did it in order that I might have a good time. When people make more work for themselves to help someone else out, it shows that they are thinking of the other person's welfare rather than their own. Acts like this show you in which people you can find true friendship. I believe that, if there were more people who would give up something for another's happiness, this world wouldn't be in the state it is today.

3. Another thing I added to my learning was the experience of working as a group to achieve one thing. I believe that throwing everyone's ideas together and coming up with something "out of this world" is a wonderful way to accomplish a good thing.
4. I have learned the value of working together for a common cause. This showed me what power a group of people can have if they recognize the need for something to be done and then work together to accomplish their purpose.
5. I enjoyed working with the group and gained experience in planning and discussing matters with people. I realized that everyone has different ideas and a group must put them all together and consider them in order to find the perfect ones. I also feel that each person in the group received some benefit, whether he realized it or not, from this experience.
6. All the time we worked on this party, I saw how important reliability was. If each person didn't do his part, no matter how small it was, something went wrong with our plans. Every time someone failed, I vowed never to be the one who lies down on the job.
7. This party has done me a lot of good because it has given me a chance to work with others and draw out of my own crowd. (We had fun, too!)
8. In this class there are two distinct cliques. I belong to the one of the lower income bracket. I have always felt that the girls in the other group were so much better off financially that I never tried to get acquainted with them. I considered them snobs, who had always snubbed me, and when I had to work with them to put over the Cafe, I thought I could never do it. I helped teach a routine to the boys' chorus line. One of the girls from the other group also helped this routine. . . . I spent all Friday afternoon working with girls from both cliques. We got along beautifully. . . . Later we both "let our

hair down" and talked about everything. . . . To my great surprise, we had nearly everything in common. If this course never teaches me anything else, I've still learned more in this class than any other. My life at this school will be much more complete now that I know that I'm not being snubbed; but instead, they are just waiting for me to make the first move, as I waited for them.

9. There is a feeling of superiority and inferiority between our Lawndale and Hillside Park kids. In the work of the party, they worked hand in hand with never a thought of social difference. As a result, I think these kids are more friendly.
10. The Cafe did a lot to help pupils work together. It also did wonders for getting the pupils and teachers to work together.
11. The thing that impressed me most about the party was the way everyone co-operated . . . Other times when the pupils of our school have given a party, I had the feeling that the faculty weren't behind us. This time, I really felt a feeling of co-operation from the faculty, a big help in making a party a success.

B. Learnings from having worked for the project:

My participation gave me a stake in the project's success.

I learned how to direct the efforts of others more effectively.

A leader doesn't have to have all the answers and make all decisions.

We learned from our mistakes.

1. The "Stardust Cafe" was one of the first school parties I really wanted to attend. I wanted to go because I did something for it and took part in it.
2. I can hardly express my feelings when I saw that the "Stardust Cafe" was a complete success. I was totally happy. I am sure I could never have felt the way I did if I hadn't taken such an active part in the preparation for the Cafe.
3. As manager of the "Stardust Cafe," a few things happened to me that I think are noteworthy. I obtained a different view earned the hard way. . . . From this experience with the group, I followed a plan whereby the kids would not lose interest in it and would have a feeling of putting it over big. Whenever any problem came up, I would present it to the class in such a manner that it was a group problem rather than a personal problem and let them decide what should be done. This not only lent interest to the project but also helped unify our efforts.
4. For instance, the decorations were far from professional, but they would long be remembered by us for this very reason. They could be appreciated because we could see mistakes . . . Recalling these old

I learned to take responsibility.

I learned to understand the difficulty of others in a similar position.

mistakes, we should avoid them in the future, thus proving the theory that "Experience is the best teacher."

5. From this experience, I definitely gained something besides tired feet. I learned a little about what it is to carry responsibility all by yourself.
6. Before this time, I always shrank from any kind of responsibility, but in this project I took even more than my full share.
7. One certainly gains an appreciation for the work anyone has when putting on a party from an experience such as this. Hereafter, every time I go to a sports event, a play, or anything where refreshments are sold, I will have a little realization of what that person did to make his part of the event successful.

C. Learnings from the successfulness of the project:

I found we really could accomplish something.

Volunteers work better than draftees.

1. I myself thought that we were putting a lot of ideas together about which everyone would slowly forget. But after a few days, we set a date for the dance and began to publicize it; and then I knew that these ideas we had would produce a good thing.
2. The night of the affair, I was fully conscious of the successfulness of this project and if all have enough interest in things, how many other things could be made worth while by the teen-agers.
3. Work on this project began when everyone in our class was convinced that our high school needed more social life . . . Even though it was hard work putting up decorations and taking down other objects, everyone did his share. I think this is why our project meant a great deal to me because it was a success and we accomplished what we started out to do—that is, all working together as a group on one project.
4. One thing I learned is that you can't always depend on everyone to do the job which he is supposed to do. If you get a group of people who are willing and want to work, your project will turn out much better than if you draft them.

The quoted comments make clear that this was no ordinary school party either in planning or execution. In the ways in which it differs lies the explanation for the learning of the skills and attitudes it apparently yielded. Instead of being teacher instigated or a routine part of school recreation, the party grew out of active interest in meeting a community need which these pupils had located. It utilized the active interests and efforts of all

members of the class instead of being delegated to a committee to "put on." This meant learning new skills for both group members and leaders. The decisions were group decisions; the ways of getting things done demanded group thinking and work, whereas the tradition often is to make one person responsible. Most important of all, the planning and work sessions involved an active exchange of ideas and skills by many pupils who had held specific misconceptions about each other.

The event just described sensitized pupils to the possibility of group work and to what others in their own classroom were really like. Visits between classes and between grades, pupil surveys of participation, and joint activities of all sorts have been used, and need to be used still more, to help pupils to understand better their own classmates. Particularly is this true in schools where pupils are separated in different curriculum tracks where rigid clique lines determine who associates with whom in and out of school, and where tradition keeps grade levels apart in clubs and at parties as well as in classes.

Heterogeneity of school personnel is desirable to make such activities educationally effective. In a heterogeneous school, pupils can meet a range

THE STARDUST CAFE

Training in group relations through school activities



of people with different backgrounds and experiences within their own building. In many schools, such a variety is not available. The next illustration describes the kind of sensitizing experience used in such situations.

INTERSCHOOL ACTIVITIES

In many communities the segregation of neighborhoods creates a kind of segregation in schools, and there is not a sufficient range of experiences in schools for meeting and learning about a variety of people. This limitation is naturally especially sharp in legally segregated communities where the separation has produced, in each one group of people, fears and misconceptions about the others, and where for that reason any new contact represents an emotionally complex situation requiring special skills to handle.

Interschool visits are being used to provide practice in some skills, and to prevent distorted accentuation of differences induced by the community setting. Unfortunately, interschool visits often are spectator-audience affairs wherein each group tries to out-do the other and where, as one pupil put it, "they looked like nice kids, but there were so many that we never really did get to talk with them." Play-days, assembly programs, and visits often have this defect. The main principle on which the activities to be described were planned was to provide for a common enterprise of interest to all, one in which neither group was handicapped, and, if possible, the group with the least prestige had an edge on excelling. Four such activities are described here.

The first three occurred between groups of pupils from all-white schools with groups from all-Negro schools. They illustrate what kind of activity may furnish a suitable setting for interschool contacts and how such visits can be worked out. The fourth illustration shows particularly the importance of follow-up discussion.

Two cooking classes had a session together. Instead of each group cooking some favorite dish of its own, which is the usual pattern, each class tried to execute a recipe that the other class had brought for them. Both groups thus had to follow a new-for-them recipe. Each pupil had two roles: to learn to use a new recipe and to advise others on how to use a recipe already mastered by him. This led to much exchange of experiences and suggestions.

Both groups were on the same level as a result of this arrangement. As the project progressed, it became evident that white pupils' stereotypes concerning the "natural" cooking ability of Negro pupils were being challenged—every shade of ability was evident among the colored students, just as it was among themselves. Nor did the colored pupils find that the white

group was uniformly deficient, but that there were more capable and less capable pupils among them, as with themselves.

At about the same time, forty girls held a joint clinic to assess the appropriateness of teen-age clothes. Half came from one school and from thirteen different home rooms; and half, from another school. The dresses and suits they examined and judged had been made in clothing classes in both schools. The area was one of great interest for both groups and revealed to each other the great similarities in tastes, opinions, and preferences in clothes. The whole group selected the same garments as its choice for first place.

In another instance, a group of fifteen Negro pupils acted as hosts to fifteen white pupils in an interschool chemistry project. The host school was newer and had better laboratory equipment than the school which the white pupils attended. Both groups participated in the preparation of a hand lotion and a deodorant.

The experience was discussed by each group upon return to "home base." The discussion among the Negro pupils revealed a number of half-learnings. One comment was, "If that is a representative group, they do not know as much about chemistry as we do. They admitted that they had not carried out experiments such as we had done and were deeply impressed by our equipment." The instructor raised the question, "Could we then conclude that these white high-school pupils are less able in chemistry than we are, on the basis of this experience with them?"

This question initiated a lively interchange of opinions. After many *pros* and *cons*, the elements in the situations clarified themselves. The pupils concluded that all one could know from this experience was that the white pupils did not learn to do the task set as readily or as well as the colored pupils but that this fact could not constitute proof of less intelligence on the part of the white group. Rather, their lower skill might more reasonably be attributed to their lack of opportunity to gain knowledge and practice in chemical techniques, due to their lack of adequate equipment. This conclusion led to the generalization that lack of opportunity might create the mistaken idea of lack of ability and, in this way, whole groups of people who had been deprived of the opportunity for development might be misjudged!

Here the instructor had aided these pupils to draw more valid generalizations than their individual understanding of their experience may have allowed them to do. Often, the pooling of individual impressions by a group

may rectify mistaken perceptions. In the discussion described above, nearly all of the group were of the opinion that all but one of the white group had been friendly; they judged this one pupil to be "cold" and as not wanting to "bother with Negroes." The instructor asked for evidence for their judgment. The ensuing remarks revealed a sharp difference of opinion in the group. Two of their number insisted that the majority were mistaken; this white boy had talked to them and exchanged ideas and questions to as great an extent as others of the white group whom they had considered friendly. It then came out that several of the white pupils had been shy with some of the colored pupils but friendly with some others. The group realized, as a result of this evidence, that how an individual behaves depends on how comfortable he feels with particular other individuals in the situation and that all white persons are not equally poised and warm to others, any more than "all of us are with each other."

A final illustration of inter-school experience comes from an eighth-grade home room group which had taken the study of prejudice as a semester's project. Although these pupils had done much reading of books and pamphlets, seen films and filmstrips, and talked a great deal about various groups, particularly Negroes, many of them had had no first-hand contact with Negroes. In order both to supply this opportunity and to pull together the various ideas and attitude learnings from their study, the teacher arranged to exchange an assembly program with another elementary and junior high school about seventy per cent of whose pupil personnel was Negro. He chose this activity as valuable not because of the content of the assembly itself but because "the sponsor groups from each school would serve as hosts and hostesses to those putting on the assembly program," and they would thus have interpersonal contacts.

For an assembly, the group decided to portray in the form of a play some of the things they had learned in their discussions: to show something about prejudice against a religion, a nationality, and a race. The Jewish religion, the Polish nationality, and the Negro race were selected.

A committee wrote the play and presented it to the group for their criticism. The parts involving Jews and Poles were accepted without change; both of these minority groupings were represented in the sponsor group. The part concerning Negroes met with a good deal of criticism: the use of two terms, "niggers" and "strikebreakers" were objected to. The committee pointed out that they had used these terms deliberately because prejudiced people call Negroes "niggers," and also, this term, like "strikebreak-

ers," fitted into the general scheme of the play. After general discussion, the two terms were left in.

The group next decided that before they presented the play to the entire assembly or even to their own school, they wanted a representative group from the other school to approve it. Accordingly, a copy of the play was sent to the other school where it was read to both white and colored students in a ninth-grade English class. This class reported that the part of the play which referred to Negroes was not acceptable as written. The sponsor group then asked that a committee from the other school meet with the writers of the play to revise the unacceptable parts. This committee, consisting of two Negro girls and one white girl and their teacher, made a number of changes in the play: The statement that all Negroes were black was taken out, on the grounds that all Negroes are not black, and colored people do not like being called "black." The term "nigger" was changed after some discussion, on the grounds that even though the purpose of the playwrights might warrant its use, the feeling in the other school against the word was so strong that the play could not possibly be successful there if the term were included. The visiting committee explained that Negroes rebel internally at the term, because "nigger" to them means the very lowest class of humanity regardless of race or creed.

The visiting committee objected to the plan that two white pupils would "black up" and play the parts of the Negroes. At their suggestion, boys from the Negro school were invited to play the parts of the two Negroes in the play.

The committee reported this discussion back to the entire group. It was decided to prepare both schools for the play by presenting a "prologue" as advance publicity. The writers of the prologue met with an enlarged committee of white and colored pupils from the other school to discuss this "prologue."

The home-room class were still not sure about the reception the play would get. They decided to ask a group of seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade pupils from the other school, who had had nothing to do with the planning, to preview the play at an assembly of their own school. After this critic group attended the play, they extended a unanimous invitation to present the play at their school.

The host school furnished a stage crew and a "mistress of ceremonies" who described the work and advanced planning which had been done. The response of both pupil groups to the play was enthusiastic. In the words of

the teacher-sponsor, "Much benefit was gained by the association and experiences—more than can be measured."

This learning experience illustrates a number of the principles. It began with pupils' interests and their own desire to follow up a study they had enjoyed. The play provided a meaningful opportunity for mutual association and participation—a problem of common concern was chosen as the focus around which more and more pupils could be brought in as participants to interact with one another. The choice of a common problem allowed the two groups to meet on an equal, noncompetitive basis in regard to knowledge and social skills. Intergroup contact was not one isolated experience but was part of an ongoing sequence of experiences.

A SUMMER AT AN INTERRACIAL WORK CAMP

A less usual but probably the most effective type of personal experience is prolonged contact with others on a basis of common purpose, shared living quarters, and shared work and play. Schools can rarely supply such protracted "sensitizing experiences." However, the experiences of one girl at an American Friends work camp in Kentucky may serve as an example of what kind of learning such long-shared common experience can provide. This girl wrote a paper on her experiences of the previous summer in the work camp. The following are excerpts from this paper:

For six summers before the summer of '46 I went to a fine girls' camp in Wisconsin . . . It offers the usual activities . . . I loved this camp but my family felt I wasn't getting all I should from it. I was something of a dreamer and rather lazy . . .

It was necessary to find a new occupation for the summer months. A possible solution to the problem came through the mail in the shape of a pamphlet containing information about American Friends Service Committee Work Camps . . . The work in the camp I preferred was in part repainting and refinishing rural school houses . . . The work at the other camp did not appeal to me—it was canning food . . . My sister and I chose the same camp, but since we didn't want to be together over the summer, we argued for a while. My sister won—I was to can food for the summer. I got on the train with a reluctant heart. I was determined to have an awful time . . .

My thoughts as I lay in my berth were filled with curiosity and anticipation. . . . The scenery on the first ride to camp was so different to me from what it was on later rides that it is unfair for me to describe it. The houses were very few and far between and what there were of them seemed very small and shabby. The hills seemed bleak and colorless. Later I thought them the most beautiful sight in the world.

We reached the town after ten miles on a twisted road. . . . I caught only a fleeting glimpse of the town as we rattled through it. . . . the mass population was 103 people. We chugged up a hill and again my feeling was disappointment. Our camp was located at a school. . . .

As the carryall shuddered to a halt and we stepped out, I was introduced to a tall, nice looking Negro boy. This was another surprise. I had not known there were to be

Negroes at our camp. The camp was to have fifteen people, ten campers and five older volunteers. Our quarters were above the workshop. . . .

I was flabbergasted by the whole situation. I was rapidly losing all emotion but surprise. The people seemed very different from any I had ever met before; the quarters were completely different from any I had been faced with. I soon met the other two girls (one colored, one white). . . .

Our business meeting was very strange. I felt too shy to say anything. . . . I groaned inwardly when it was decided to have our rising time at 5:30. I was perfectly stunned. Gone were all dreams of laziness. . . .

Al (the director) said the field was about half a mile from the house as the crow flies, but as we walked it was more like two miles. I loved the field and the path leading to it. . . . The first job was to weed the carrots. I learned both to love and dread the long hours of backbreaking work under the blistering sun. . . . But. . . it was lovely. I would stand after an hour of tedious work and look around, then go back to work with feelings of stiffness greatly lessened.

After a day or two I knew that I would love everyone I would be working with, with only one exception. . . . Because there were so few of us and we lived in such close quarters, we soon came to know each other better than people we had known for years at home. Our group was remarkably intelligent, and from the older ones in particular, I gained a whole new philosophy of life. Things that meant a great deal to me in former years were soon dulled and finally lost in the atmosphere of interesting, intelligent conversation and new experiences.

The purpose of work camp was not only to accomplish a given task, but in addition to furnish environment for an entirely new kind of life. We had at our disposal the tools with which to clip off outer layers of city convention and uncover the interest and desire to learn the ways of a different kind of people and religion quite new to us. The people of the community were all around us, ready and willing to make friends. We were living right in the center of their community. . . . They looked up on the hill for recreation. . . . folk-dancing in the gym about twice a week during the summer. . . . We, from the work-camp, loved these evenings. The townspeople would come up *en masse* and we soon came to know a good many of these soft-voiced people. . . . We had some special friends among the townsfolk. One girl in particular became almost part of us. . . . The smaller children of the village came up in swarms. We played with them and amused them for hours, for which we got a lot of thanks from overworked parents. Two or three of the older boys also became much a part of our work-camp scene. . . .

In addition to these speakers, many of whom became our dear friends, we took trips, such as all-day trips in the large truck, to state parks and other such places of interest. On these trips, we took any of the townspeople who wanted to go. I was thrilled by the unbelievable beauty of the country around me. . . . The city became a mere nothing in comparison with all this majesty. . . .

The other big trip was to — College. . . . That evening we decided to go to the movies. I never expected to find so much segregation in the pretty little town, and, when the manager of the theater came up to the balcony (where we had gone to avoid any possible trouble for C. . . . and L. . . .), and told our two Negro friends to move to the other side of the narrow aisle, I was really shocked. . . . As we walked down the street together, people said rude things and talked among themselves, point-

ing at our beloved friends as though they were the lowest form of human life. It was not a pleasant experience, but there was really little we could do besides ignore the whispering people.

Our work at camp was not easy. . . . Then began the long involved method of canning. . . . This process took a long time and sometimes we grew discouraged after we had worked from 7 o'clock to 5:30, first under the blazing sun and then at the cannery that was always filled with steam. . . . But as we watched our pile of cans grow and grow till there was no more room for them in the shed, our hearts were lightened and we worked with renewed vigor. . . .

At the end of the two glorious months, we went home with a feeling of having accomplished something. I felt as if I were a completely different person from the sullen girl who had first ridden reluctantly into the work camp.

Since such long-term experiences are difficult to arrange, many schools have taken advantage of the one day or week-end work service opportunities. These have some advantages described in the above example; namely, meeting new people in the context of working together for something that is recognized as a needed job. Thus, an opportunity is provided to identify themselves with people of different life habits through the medium of a common cause.

PREPARATION AND FOLLOW-UP

One pitfall in all sensitizing experiences is that people take from them in the measure of what they take to them. If stereotyped actions and misconceptions prevail, often they are intensified rather than eliminated, unless there is a careful follow-up. This was illustrated by a visit to a factory by one eleventh-grade class which was studying how the people of America earn their living.

The pupils in this class, as the teachers had already discovered from their papers, comments, and reactions to stories, tended to consider anyone "a dope" who worked at a routine or monotonous job and thought that anyone who found himself in such a job should leave it and get another if he had any sense.

During the visit, which on the whole was a very constructive eye-opener and did much to develop a reality picture about work, several pupils stopped beside one worker and asked what she was making. She replied that she didn't know. They persisted, inquiring next how long she had worked there, to which she replied, "Since the war started," some four or five years. She then leaned across to the worker opposite her in the line and asked, "Say, what am I making?"

This incident, standing by itself, could have easily reinforced the notions they already held. Obviously, more understanding was needed of how factory

work is set up and how complicated specialization, without any provision for the worker to understand the whole process of production, affects workers' knowledge about their particular jobs. In this instance, wider perspective was promoted by the study of a variety of work situations through vivid fictional accounts and factual materials. The streamlined mass-production factory and the earlier "sweatshop;" the historical development of mass-production methods as they fit into the over-all pattern of economic development; and the specific effects of particular industrial methods on workers were all investigated. For example, a passage from *A Tree Grows in Brooklyn* demonstrated the difficulty in getting a job, the monotony of winding stems in a flower factory all day, the teasing of a new worker and her dread of the situation, and her response to the taunts of the others when she knew she had to keep her job—all given as component parts of a total situation. At the same time, careful study was made of jobs available to high-school graduates, what kinds of preparations they require, who cannot get a job though prepared. While the reading experiences were helping them view the worker's position more sympathetically, this series of facts enlarged their understanding of opportunities in any community and led to more realistic assessments of what positions people, even themselves, may be engaged in, whatever their own preferences and preparation.

We have described in this section sensitizing experiences which did not depend primarily on the use of books or films or discussion. The kinds of experiences described in this chapter are often considered to be "extracurricular," rather than integral parts of the curriculum. However, the accounts just given show how interschool visits, parties, assembly programs, and the like may be used to supplement and to extend the learning of the same concepts, sensitivities, and skills for working and living together that the academic curriculum seeks to promote. In order for such experiences to be educationally effective, it is necessary that the goals they are designed to implement be carefully identified ahead of time. Having done so, the teacher can do careful preplanning and pretraining to ensure that the experience has the intended effect. Follow-up discussion as a means of clarifying and generalizing about what happened is necessary in order to provide an opportunity for pupils to interpret the meaning of the particular face-to-face experience in which they have participated.

CHAPTER V

Training in Group Relations Skills

WHILE schools have always been concerned with the training in skills, the scope of the social skills emphasized has not been broad, nor the emphasis always pertinent. The social skills have been too often confined to the routines of polite etiquette and to the mastering of parliamentary procedure.

As the teachers in our co-operating schools began studying pupils and observing their behavior in groups, it became quite clear that, in a great many of the problems of getting along together, a deficiency in social skills figured as a strong factor. Pupils who intended to be friendly often hurt each other instead. Groups of adolescents seemed to master only a few alternative ways of dealing with conflicts, rebuff, misunderstandings, or criticism. They were afraid and suspicious of new situations and new people, mainly because they had little confidence in their ability to handle them. This difficulty repeated itself whether it was in the area of peer relations, of family relations, or of relations with other adults. Among minority group children, or children of lower socio-economic status, the problem was even more difficult. Although lacking, even in the usual social amenities, they were at the same time forced to meet more complicated and threatening social situations, situations which involved rebuff and rejection. In their case, their deficiency of needed skills led to almost invariable experiences of failure in certain kinds of social situations and often to the warping of personality that continual anticipation of failure can produce. Defensive behaviors, such as a "chip on the shoulder" attitude, were frequent as a consequence and ensured continuance of the "vicious circle."

The same problems appeared when teachers examined the leadership patterns and processes practiced in school activities. Pupils in responsible positions, which involved authority over others, lacked skill in handling situations

they were expected to handle. They seemed especially weak in dealing with the human aspects of these situations. Clubs, student council affairs, and other activities were often in difficulties because processes by which to obtain cooperation, group action, and group consent were not clearly understood, nor well practiced when understood. At many points it was evident that the efforts to practice democracy were limited to routines of voting and the methods by which to assess the group needs, by which to assure that differences of opinion and of feeling were aired before discussions were made, were both unclear and somewhat ineffective.

In classroom discussions and committee work, also, a more effective mastery of group processes seemed to be called for. Pupils and teachers alike needed to learn how to analyze and formulate problems together before starting to study them, how to assure participation by everybody, how to call into play everyone's talents and contributions, and still stay on the track. Especially, it seemed important to discover how to engage the usual silent third of the class in the common activity.

A good deal more attention apparently was needed both to the analysis of what was needed if people were to learn to get along and work together and to more systematic provisions for training in these skills. In the first place, adequate skills in social behavior are an important element in any one person's equipment for security, self-sufficiency, and happiness. Particularly is it necessary to eliminate the gap between what an individual understands, believes in, and what he is equipped to implement in behavior. Secondly, our emphasis on democracy is likely to be built on shaky ground, unless at the same time people are equipped to practice democracy in human relations also. This in turn requires mastery of skills in group processes and implementing insights into the next person's feelings and reactions. And finally, we can't expect maturity in our citizenry, unless young people can in school be initiated into the strategy of group action and into using the available democratic channels.

In the course of the Intergroup Education project, not as much attention was devoted to the exploration of group relations skills as the problem merited. However, a few analyses were made, and a few new techniques were developed. The main characteristic in all of these explorations was the effort to provide for the repetition of performance,—which is necessary for the mastery of skills—so as not to divorce the practice from the reality of the situation and thus delete the psychological motivation and the necessity to understand and to deal with the complex human factors. This effort brought about the development of several new techniques as training devices, among which were

open questions used to assess where the shortcomings were, and sociodrama used to explore and evaluate with the pupils alternative ways of handling different situations.

In this chapter, a few illustrations of such training programs are given. These illustrations sample three kinds of social skills: managing group affairs, behavior in positions of authority, and handling personal relations.

LEARNING TO MANAGE GROUP AFFAIRS

In an occupational school for boys, the need for learning group-relations skills was especially acute. The thousand boys in this school came from all over the city and were largely from low-income homes. Most of the white pupils were of foreign-born parentage; many of the Negro pupils were immigrants from the rural South. Many of them had been transferred from other schools, either because they were academically "unfit" or because they were disciplinary problems. While transferring for this last reason had been discontinued at the time the study started, the feeling that the school was a "bad-boy" school persisted in the minds of the teachers, the boys, and the people in the community. Most of the boys went directly into jobs from the school, usually into semiskilled labor positions.

In the judgment of the school staff, the boys were unable to make decisions and to assume responsibility for their own actions. Halls were strictly policed. An elaborate system of rewards and punishments was used as a motivation for good behavior. The pupils' meager home environment and their tag of "bad boys" gave them no incentive to expect better behavior of themselves. Breaking rules was common; hall guards were rushed at any provocation; constructive suggestions were booed down. There was a general feeling of inferiority and dejection. Everything seemed to conspire to limit opportunities for learning acceptable social behavior.

The staff saw in the student council an opportunity to tackle the situation through its giving pupils an opportunity to learn how to manage themselves—to organize their own life, to manage social activities, to carry on responsibilities, and to study the interrelationships among themselves. What follows is a sketchy story of how this was carried on over a period of two years.¹

The student councils were asked what they believed the school needed most as a means of improving school life for everybody. During the discussions of this problem, the council members pointed out that the greatest need was for the student body to feel theirs was a good school. They cited specific instances in which the school's reputation as a "bad-boys school" had

¹ See, John T. Robinson, "Students and Faculty Work to Improve School Life," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, (May, 1948), for story on the same school.

seemed justified. They pointed out that few pupils voted in the school elections and that few pupils considered it worth bothering to run for office. The council representatives were frequently not listened to when they gave their reports to their home rooms, because what they had to report was often of no interest to the pupils in the home rooms. Even the council members had very low expectations of other pupils and of themselves. Such comments as, "The kids in this school won't do anything," were common.

After these complaints and expressions of discouragement were aired, the council members were asked what they thought could be done to improve school life and school spirit. Specific proposals were made for improving the school paper, making the school more attractive, having dances, and improving student morale. The training for social skills described below was tied in with the carrying out of this wide variety of suggestions. Four of the several school projects that were subsequently carried out are described here—the carrying out of the functions of the student council; making group plans; getting along in party situations; and using the proper channels to get things done.

In carrying out the functions of student participation in school government, the training of student council members had actually begun with this step of identifying school problems and needs and locating the next step in activities. For the first time, the student council was considering not only how to enforce its own regulations, but also how to serve the total school population.

As successive activities were initiated, the council began to meet with decisions, strategies, and processes it had not needed to face before. The boys had to learn how to explain ideas to their constituents. Thereby they discovered that they had constituents and that these constituents had minds of their own. They had to set up ways for managing their financial affairs. It was necessary for them to learn how to organize parties. This was a complex task since the school was noncoeducational, was mixed racially, had a bad reputation, and had not held dances for some time.

Before very long, the council realized that other pupils would also have to learn what they as a group were learning if they were to accomplish their purpose of improving the school. They began to raise questions as to how activities in which large numbers of pupils could participate might be provided. Several activities were discussed as possibilities. Among these were a booster's club and a printed rather than a (previously) mimeographed paper. At this point, the council members began wondering whether these activi-

ties really represented the interests of the whole student body. They decided that it was important to go back to their home rooms and talk these proposals over with the other pupils, as well as to ask for suggestions of additional ways to increase participation of pupils in the life of the school.

This responsibility set a new task for the council representatives. Many of them were uncertain about how to go about such a survey of opinion. The student council accordingly used several sessions to plan how a person would make such a report to his class, how he would initiate discussion on these problems, and how he would bring back to the council the proposals which came from his group. Instead of hurrying up action at this point, the need for training in skills was recognized and provided for by discussion and planning by the council itself. Because it was a new procedure, several problems developed in carrying it out. Some of the representatives found that the teachers did not give them enough time to talk over their problems with the class. Also, pupils often were not able to think of alternatives; they simply suggested more of the same kind of activities. These results were talked over in a council meeting. The council decided that the best thing to do would be to adopt the original proposals which had been accepted by the home rooms and get them started as soon as possible. The council went to various faculty members and asked if they would sponsor such activities. A final step was to plan ways of informing the total student body of what these activities were and how anyone could take part in them. Thus the council learned how to defer decisions on important questions until its members could go back to their home rooms and raise questions for discussion and recommendation with their fellow-students. They also learned where and how to compromise in order to keep action going without sacrificing its main purposes.

As these plans were carried into action, other pupil groups increasingly began bringing problems to the council. Although this trend revealed that the council was gaining a new status among the pupils and that the pupils were learning to participate, it created new tasks for the members. The school-paper staff, after surveying student opinion, decided to get out a printed paper as the pupils had requested. In order to insure a continuing and adequate amount to pay for the printing, they felt that student fees would have to be raised thirty cents. This problem was brought before the council for study and action by the school-paper staff. The council talked over the proposed raise in fees and decided that it was necessary for the members to consult with their home rooms on it before they came to any

decision. The council accordingly deferred action on raising the fees until each home room had the opportunity to discuss the matter. It seemed evident that the members were seeing their functions differently and were feeling more confident of their ability to talk things over with their classmates.

The home rooms were overwhelmingly in favor of raising fees to support a printed paper. The faculty objected to the raise but the decision stood on recommendation of the principal, who pointed out how carefully the pupils had gone about making this decision.

Subsequently, the council took over several functions which had previously been carried on by the staff, such as taking charge of the school bank and later providing for the writing and adoption of a school song. The episode following may indicate to what extent the new methods for work were applied to each new activity.

Two projects were planned to provide pupils with an opportunity for recreation. The first of these was an all-school dance. Since this was a boys' school, there were few activities which gave the boys an opportunity to associate with girls in the usual school setting as the school had not had "mixed" parties or dances for years. For this reason, the council members not only had to plan the dance, make arrangements for music, plan the financing, secure the use of the gymnasium, and send invitations, but also found it was necessary to dispel the boys' doubts and fears that it would be a "flop," that no girls would want to come, and that they, the boys, might behave incorrectly. The first dance, attended by 100 people, was a success. A staff member's report of the first dance held at Thanksgiving is as follows:

We did not have too big a crowd, but everyone went home satisfied. We had approximately 100 people; not too big, but big enough when you consider that our school is noncoeducational and that most of our boys are in the junior high-school level. The gym was nicely decorated; the band, fairly good; the boys served refreshments; and the school photographer was present and took pictures.

The next dance drew a crowd of three hundred. Subsequent ones were attended by more people than the assembly hall could accommodate. As the dances continued, the boys became increasingly skilled, both in managing the practical and technical problems involved in holding a large social gathering and in recognizing and dealing with the human relations involved. Boys learned how to make introductions between their "date" and their classmates, or their friends and the school staff members. They learned how to handle implements in eating refreshments; they learned how to dance. On a later occasion, the question of one boy who didn't dance came up. He said he would just be in the way at the party being planned. The boys pointed

cut that he had a whole month to learn, but he said that he didn't have the time to do so because he was at school until three o'clock and worked from three thirty until eleven in a restaurant. One of the boys asked him, "Would you learn if one of us taught you?" He said he'd like to. The principal's permission was obtained to teach him during the third period, which was the period these boys were free. One boy said, "I could teach you the box-step in two lessons and that's all you need to stay on the floor."

Apart from providing the impetus for such social learnings as how to behave at parties and how to handle refreshments, these activities also gave the pupils the opportunity to acquire the more subtle skills of considering others and their feelings in connection with what they did and of managing their affairs so as to make people lacking in these skills comfortable while helping them to acquire them. Increasingly also, the solidarity of the group grew. Members of different groups and "gangs" began associating with each other at these gatherings. Security in inviting girls to the functions grew. The affairs were more and more managed so that a pleasant time was had by all with no untoward incidents occurring.

Their second project, carried on simultaneously with the planning of the dance, was to provide school symbols which would identify the school and themselves as pupils of their school: a new flag, reinstituting the T-shirts which had been in disrepute because of the stigma attached to the school, arranging for the composition of a school song, and so on. These activities involved a great deal of psychological salesmanship in addition to the practical management necessary to carry them through.

In all these activities, skills in locating and using the channels through which to get things done were an important part of the student council program. Involved were how to determine which channels were the appropriate ones to get action on a problem, which ways one can use these channels effectively, and how to gain support for what a group wants and needs. A particularly clear illustration of these skills was afforded by pupil efforts to have the interior of the school washed or painted as one of the first things suggested as a council project to improve the school. The council first asked the principal to carry their plea to the school board. This request was turned down. The council then debated the matter again, and it was suggested that they wash it themselves. A check with the building engineer revealed that for them to do this would be a violation of union regulations. The council then formulated a petition with signatures of many pupils and forwarded it to the Board of Education. Apparently this worked. It brought a promise to

clean and paint the entire building the next year and the explanation that requests of this sort have to wait that long, since budgets are made a year in advance. This project gave the pupils practice in making requests in proper form, in marshalling mass support, and in acquiring an understanding of how things are run in the community.

Another incident also brought the pupils to the task of locating channels and formulating strategies. Their football field was used by several other schools in the city. At one of the games played by two other schools, the boys took down the goal posts and fights developed. Although both of these schools had white and Negro pupils, it was soon identified as a racial incident. The next day a local newspaper carried a two column headline reading, "Near Riot on . . . Football Field." The article gave the impression that the school on whose football field the game was played had been involved. The council realized how greatly such publicity could damage their gradually developing good reputation. They discussed what action they could take in regard to it. At first there was only condemnation of the newspaper. Suggestions gradually began coming in on how to get the paper to correct the impression. It was finally decided to send a committee to the city editor of the newspaper to lay the whole problem before him and to suggest to him that the paper run an article the following day correcting the impression the first story had made. The committee carried through on this suggestion and made an appointment with the editor. As a result of their conference, a retraction and full explanation of the actual event was printed in the next issue of the newspaper.

TRAINING SCHOOL MONITORS

In connection with training in specific skills for specific human-relations situations, several considerations applied which made the problem a thorny one. First, it was important to practice these skills in real rather than hypothetical situations. This meant that in the training situation itself there should be an opportunity to balance the intricate factors that have to be weighed in any human situation—identification with the "other" person or persons, a chance to explore alternative solutions, a real-enough opportunity to explore and to consider the feeling reactions of all considered, and, above all, to examine the alternatives in the light of real consequences. How to do that, short of actual "training-on-the-job," was the problem.

In several schools, sociodrama or role-playing was used as one way to meet this need. The essence of this procedure is to reproduce any actual situations chosen for study, usually by the pupils themselves. This first incident is fol-

lowed by playing out whatever alternative ways of handling the situation anyone in the group may suggest. The alternatives are followed by discussion devoted to analyzing each of the depicted methods used to handle the situation and to describing the reactions to each method.

Sociodrama has an advantage in that it can telescope crucial situations into a fairly short session of learning without deleting the emotional factors present in the real solution. By making it possible for pupils to play roles different from their own, such as a boy playing a girl's role, a girl acting out her date's behavior, and a boy playing his father, it facilitates projection into the other person's "shoes"—an important skill in any human-relations situation. Also, since several people play the same situations in a different manner, comparison of alternative behaviors is made possible, thus enabling pupils to see elements in the situation within a framework of general principles.²

The example given below describes one sociodrama sequence which was applied to locating the problems monitors have in exercising their authority and to exploring the ways in which their job could be done better.

In one junior high school, the teachers reported a great tendency on the part of their pupils to lean heavily on authority, either their own or the teacher's, as a means of handling problem situations. Various factors in their home situations and the patterns of student government in the elementary school and in the junior high-school system itself had brought this about. Coupled with this pattern was a tendency to think of anyone whose behavior differed from the approved code as "bad" or "mean." Among the pupils, who as safety officers or monitors had special responsibility for controlling behavior in the halls, on the playground, and in the lunchroom, this recourse to authority took the form of wanting to pass out "tickets" to any pupil who broke school rules or to call upon a teacher to punish him. Most of them had no skills for executing their particular jobs without offending other pupils and without using punishment. Moreover, they saw no necessity for other techniques. Thus, frictions developed between the pupils with these responsibilities and the rest of the student body. There were, furthermore, difficulties between past and present monitors, on the ground that the old monitors who were eighth-grade pupils and knew the rules, would obey them and, therefore, resented being "called on the carpet" by new monitors, particularly, since these monitors were seventh-grade pupils. A

² For further description of sociodrama, see J. L. Moreno, *Psychodrama*, Section V: "Role Theory and Role Practise," pp. 151-176, and Section VIII: "Sociodrama," pp. 350-366 New York: Beacon House, 1946.

barrage of complaints was received by the teacher in charge at every monitor meeting.

This teacher wished to use the meetings of the monitors and safety patrols for developing: (a) a better understanding of situations in which rules were broken, (b) more skillful ways of carrying out their responsibility, and (c) a broadened awareness of ways other than punishment for solving problem situations. She particularly wanted them to develop more concern for their relations with others and lay less stress on their own positions of authority.

The teacher used a combination of sociodrama and discussion as her training method. The following examples reproduce the whole sequence in order to show the rate at which the development of these insights and skills proceeded.

The first meeting of the hall-monitor captains, October 4, during lunch period:

The teacher, Miss A., asked, "What situations are particularly annoying when you act as hall guards?"

The teacher, in asking this question, had not introduced the idea of difficulties. The pupils had been complaining a great deal. They came to the meeting brimming with grievances, so that this question gave them a chance to "let off steam." They cited a wide range of difficulties as follows:

1. Pupils sass hall monitors.
2. Every day many lockers are left open.
3. Running down stairs is common—pupils use the right stairway only if reminded.
4. Eighth-grade boys run as they come from shop—we can't do anything about it.
5. Girls congregate in the washrooms to talk and they fly out when the bell rings—they don't do this on the seventh-grade floor. This only happens before school during the morning and at noon.
6. When pupils have passes for the library, they often use them to go to their lockers.

The teacher asked next, "Who was involved when a student sassed a hall monitor?"

Karen: Carter was near his locker which is at the head of the stairs. When I told some girls coming upstairs to be quiet, he said they didn't have to.

Miss A: Show us how you asked the girls to be quiet. (*The class went out to the corridor. They began to re-enact the scene. The girls came upstairs, chattering busily. Karen called: "Stop talking so loudly—quiet on the stairs." The girls lowered their voices as they passed her and walked on.*)

Miss A: Now what did Carter say?

Karen: He said, "They can talk in the halls if they want to."

Miss A: What did you do about Carter?

Karen: I said they couldn't talk so loudly—that they should be quiet. He said they could talk. So I was sore, but I couldn't do anything because I didn't have any tickets.

Although no tickets had been in use at any time during that school year, monitors and safety officers were demanding them and saying that if they could give out tickets, they would have no problems. It later turned out that they had learned about the use of tickets when, as sixth grade pupils, they had visited the school for orientation. Next Karen played Carter in the same situation, as the teacher wanted her to have a chance to feel as he had felt then.

Miss A: Would someone like to show us what Karen might do under these circumstances? (Carolyn, [Chairman of Hall Monitors] volunteered. A boy, Ted, took Carter's place in the situation. The girls came upstairs again.)

Carolyn (as Karen): Girls, lower your voices in the halls.

Ted (as Carter): They can talk if they want to.

Carolyn: They can't be so noisy in the halls.

Ted: You just want to boss them.

Carolyn: Where did you get so much authority?

Ted: (No reply. Ted seemed not to know what to say).

Miss A: What do we want Carter to feel about Karen's efforts to keep the halls in order?

Karen: We want him to respect the hall monitors. Punish him if he doesn't.

Miss A: Do you want him to show respect for them or feel it?

Pete: We want him to feel that Karen is trying to do the right thing.

Miss A: How can we handle this situation so that he will want to be helpful?

Ted: I can't pretend I am Carter. I guess I don't know what he'd say. He's a good kid.

Miss A: Do you think we could help him to feel differently about this situation if we asked him to let us experiment with his reactions?

The captains thought he would come to the next meeting and Carolyn asked him, telling him that the hall monitors would like him to participate in an experiment which it was hoped would improve relations between monitors and pupils.

At the end of this first session, it was apparent that: *first*, the teacher, by her method of questioning, tended to direct the discussion to certain conclusions before the pupils had a chance to test several ways of handling the situation. She did not let this happen again.

Second, the pupils who spoke at the end of the sequence seemed more concerned with how other pupils regard them as monitors and with exerting their authority than they did with working out a solution to the real problem of talking in the halls.

Even in this first session, pupils were beginning to shift from seeking to solve problems by enforcing a rule or giving a punishment to considering the consequences that their way of handling a problem might have on the feelings and behavior of the pupils with whom they dealt. Before, they had always taken for granted the provision for rules and for punishment. They also were increasingly ready to consider alternate ways of exercising their functions as monitors and to consider critically the rules and practices in terms of their effect on pupils.

The second session, October 22:

Carter: What do I do, Miss A?

Carolyn explained to him that the group was going to try to show him the different ways that the hall monitors might handle the situation in which he was involved. Carter recalled the incident, but not his exact words. He was asked to respond according to his feelings about what the hall monitors did and said. He agreed.

Carolyn (as Karen): Girls, please lower your voices as you come upstairs. (Getting more polite.)

Carter: They can talk. They are allowed to.

Carolyn: How do you know?

Carter: I was a hall monitor.

Carolyn: Why don't you take over?

Carter: I can't. I am a librarian.

Carolyn: They can't be so noisy in the halls.

Carter: But they are allowed to talk.

Carolyn gave up and Carter looked sort of sheepish. He seemed to have expected her to help him out of the situation. They agreed that this method had not improved the situation or their relationship. Here the former monitor was asserting his experience and superior familiarity with the rules. They had arrived at an *impasse* by quoting rules at each other, but neither seemed to know how to get out of the difficulty.

Mary Jane: Let me try.

Carter: They can talk—they can talk—they *are* allowed to. (This was partially directed toward the teacher.)

Mary Jane (as Karen): I just asked them to be more quiet.

Carter: But you weren't being courteous and they *can* talk.

Mary Jane: Maybe you're right but if you want to help me, come over and tell me quietly. Don't tell me in front of everyone.

Carter: I guess I'd say I'm sorry.

The group and Carter seemed satisfied with this method. This was the first attempt by a monitor to "get across" how she felt to another pupil in her request that he not tell her "in front of everyone." The class returned to the room and a girl said, "Our room wants to know when we get tickets."

Mary Jane: Yes, when we get tickets, all this trouble will disappear.

Miss A: The kids run and pay no attention. A few of them say "Watch me," and then they run.

Bert: The south door monitors get disgusted. When the kids are going home, they run downstairs.

Gerry: Last year, we sent pupils here to see how this school was run and we came over here and we all expect tickets because we heard about them.

Bert: I think we should have punishments for some things but not as many as last year.

Miss A: Do you think the hall monitors have any experiences that they are particularly pleased about at any time?

The teacher's purpose here was to identify and analyze some of the situations monitors felt they handled successfully in order to facilitate an exchange of skills and insights. For this purpose, exploration of "pleasing" experiences is often a good starting point, leaving the "less pleasing" experiences to be dealt with later.

Pets: Most of the kids don't do these things. There are only a few who always cause trouble.

Carolyn: Some monitors really try to help and not be a big shot. (She mentioned notes placed on lockers and signed by "your friendly hall monitors.")

Miss A: Could we do anything that would make the whole school conscious of the desire of most pupils to have a good school?

The meeting was adjourned after this question was asked.

Third session, October 29:

The captains had to select new hall monitors during the meeting. The new ones were to start November 1. The captains decided to give a demonstration in handling a pertinent situation for the entire staff of about fifty hall monitors who would be working together until December 15th. The new method of training used by the teacher with the captains was now being carried over by the captains to their work with other monitors.

Fourth session, November 11. Meeting of captains, some new members present:

Miss A: What situations have come up that annoyed you very much when you were on duty?

Cindy: Sometimes they stomp upstairs just as hard as they can go.

Jack: When kids go to the library, they don't let you sign your initials. They just sit on the stairs. Then they come down and let you sign them. Stomping upstairs goes for me too.

Jerry: From study hall to the library, they take the most indirect route they can—almost looking in the rooms.

Jayne: When people are sent out of the rooms, they don't sit in the hall or go to the study hall; they just go around to doors and make trouble for everybody in the school.

Ted: Some kids in the eighth grade are big shots. They go right up the stairs but come down the same way. That's wrong. Eighth-grade pupils are wheels and take advantage of the seventh-grade pupils.

Bert: At noon the boys come upstairs. One boy "wises off" in the basement. "They show off."

Bobby: The teachers don't put out the attendance slips.

Cindy: When they see a hall monitor, they run—this is at noon before school.

It was important that several pupils had a chance to describe what annoyed them before any one situation was selected for closer analysis. This permitted pent-up feelings to be expressed, indicated what the range of annoyances was, and got all members focused on considering the actual problems. If the first problem mentioned had been solved by the teacher, there would not have been group involvement in the analysis, nor the development of perspective in analyzing any one situation.

Miss A: Cindy, tell us about the stomping on the stairs that bothered you.

Cindy: Mike came stomping up the north stairs. I said, "I think you could walk a little quieter, don't you?" Mike said, "I got heavy boots on."

Miss A: What did you do?

Cindy: I didn't do anything because others were coming upstairs. I was going upstairs. I reported it to you.

This meeting was short, so Miss A. suggested that it be carried over.

Miss A: Shall we ask Mike to come to our next meeting?

Group: Yes.

Evidently they felt satisfaction from their experience with Carter. Mike is older, finds it hard to live with the group, and Miss A thought it would prove an enjoyable experience for him to be included in something. She planned to have Mike in Cindy's place and Cindy in Mike's place as they tried out the sociodrama.

Sixth session, November 23:

Miss A: Mike is still absent. Shall we have Cindy show us exactly what happened?

Ted: The eighth-grade pupils are still taking advantage of the seventh-grade pupils.

Here instead of taking up Miss A's suggestion, one captain suggested another problem.

Miss A: Will you take one example and tell us about it?

Teds: Well, Jimmy is coming downstairs. I say, "Walk down the stairs. Go back and walk down." Jimmy said, "Oh, why?"

Miss A: How did he look?

Ted: He was smiling.

Miss A: What kind of smiling— how did he smile?

Ted: Just smiling.

Miss A: Was he teasing you in his smiling or anything?

Ted: No, just friendly smiling.

The teacher was trying to get an exact description of the situation. She might better have asked Ted to act out what happened. This would serve both to reproduce the situation and to get Ted into the mood he felt at the time.

Miss A: Tell us what happened then.

Ted: He just went on and I went after him. I said, "Please go up and down the stairs." And then he just went on.

Ted, a seventh-grade pupil, apparently had a resigned feeling about his defeat with "eighth graders."

Miss A: Ted, you be Jimmy; Cindy, you be Ted.

Miss A. purposely selected Cindy to play Ted, as Cindy, like Ted, is accused of bossiness by the other pupils. This experience should enable her to see more closely the consequences of bossiness.

Miss A: Show us how you would do it, Cindy.

Cindy (as Ted): Don't run down the stairs—walk up and down.

Ted (as Jimmy): Oh, why? (He walked on. Cindy calls after him.)

Cindy: Don't you want a good school? Please go back and walk. (Ted, as Jimmy, shrugged his shoulders and went on smiling. Cindy started after him.)

Cindy: You will be a bad example.

Miss A: Sandra you may show us what you would do. (All had their hands up.)

Sandra: (as Ted) to Ted (as Jimmy) Walk down stairs, please.

Ted: Oh, why?

Sandra: Well, don't have the school have you as a bad example. (Sandra looked helpless as he walked on. Others shot up their hands and Miss A. asked them to try. Janet tried next.)

Janet (as Ted): Jimmy, please stop running.

Ted (as Jimmy): Oh, why?

Janet: If you were a hall monitor, wouldn't you want the kids to walk? What would you do? (Ted, as Jimmy, stopped to talk to her. He replied.)

Ted: I'd ask them to stop. (As Mary Jane had in the first sequence, Janet here called upon Jimmy to see how she felt. Others still had their hands up, so Miss A. called on Bobby.)

Bobby: Are you in a hurry?

Ted (as Jimmy): I was late at my locker. I will be tardy.

Carolyn: That's better, if you act as though you are there to help.

Miss A: How do you think each one of us is affected, Jimmy?

Here, Miss A. avoided judgment about right or wrong or best ways. She directed them to the consideration of alternative behaviors and what effect each had on Jimmy. This was a necessary step in helping the captains to consider consequences and feelings rather than resort to abstract "right ways" as they had been doing.

Ted: Cindy more or less had a point. (They couldn't remember so Cindy and Ted did it over again.)

Bobby: That was very sassy sounding. She looked as though she was mad.

Sandra: What good would it do to make them do it over?

Jack: We should put them in our place so they will be more thoughtful.

Janet: I had the same experience. If you're courteous and you don't make them walk up and down, they are all right. I say if you are in a hurry, don't run and you won't have to go back.

Miss A: What about sending them back? (Someone said they shouldn't send pupils back. This led to considerable discussion in which many reasons were offered for not sending others back. Several mentioned that this humiliated the pupils. They concluded that they would tell the monitors "not to send kids back.")

The session concluded with a specific agreement for action. This took into account the feelings of others which they had discussed. The next step with this group was a training sequence on how to make a request of a teacher.

BOY-GIRL RELATIONSHIPS

There are many areas in boy-girl relationships where pupils are anxious to practice, compare, and test out skills. In order to locate situations, the teacher may hold a discussion based on the question: "What problems connected with boy-girl behavior ought we to look at and see how each of us deals with?" Or, the teacher may assign a pertinent story or magazine article for class reading and then plan with the group on what problems they want to work. An example of this approach was a teacher's assignment of an article from the magazine *Calling All Girls* which dealt with what to do when the boy friend leaves the girl in the middle of the floor at the end of each dance. The problem was how to correct the situation without causing him embarrassment.

Another way to explore the problems of concern to pupils is to use a social occasion of immediate interest to pupils. For example, girls at a vocational school were having a dance "a week from Friday." Pupils had a choice either to invite a boy or to come alone. One teacher, wanting to use this occasion for training, asked her class to write on the following question: "What situations, that you are afraid you'll have difficulty with and would like to work out in advance, if any, may come up in connection with the dance?" The most frequently given situations were: When a boy asks you for a dance; when no one asks you for a dance; what to do on the way home when, (a) you stop for a sandwich and you or he are uncertain about the way to eat, (b) you have difficulty in talking to the boy, (c) you have difficulty in making the boy see you must be home by 12 o'clock. The pupils wished to combine the three situations into one sociodrama portraying the arrival at the dance

and what happened at "Bill's Place" afterwards. Different pupils were to be "couples" and enter and leave the situation as might naturally happen.

Accordingly, the class set up the dance first, placing one pupil in charge of the electric phonograph, others in charge of the punch bowl at a table to one side, a row of chairs for hostesses, and the music began—first a slow number twice and then a fast number, as is customary in this community.

The discussion, which followed, pointed up that the chaperons had been ignored except for an occasional nod at a distance; boys "ought not," as they did, go down the line of girls asking one after another to go home with them, and especially not immediately; all should use better manners—they should not talk with food in their mouths nor should they lean so far over the table or roll napkins into a ball; girls, when not asked to dance, should dance together to "show the boys they were good dancers, then perhaps the boys would ask them." Skills, it is clear, were being assessed both in terms of general etiquette and in terms of local codes of appropriate behavior. After this, the situation was played once more by pupils who had the opportunity to see the others but had not taken part in the earlier role-playing. Following this, the group again discussed what they had witnessed. The teacher opened the discussion by asking, "Which of the three sociodramas did you prefer?" All preferred the third. They pointed out that the couples greeted the chaperons; the boys were more polite to the girls, most of all; and the girls "answered" the boys while "before some just shook their heads." The teacher had to draw from them the observation that the girls made the boys feel good by such remarks as, "I've had a nice night," rather than just standing and saying nothing; and that this affected how the boys behaved towards them.

It is important that the analysis session push beyond general comment to precise behavioral descriptions of what was said or what was done as it is this that fosters learning of skill and insight. The main criticism of the seniors who had taken notes was that the conversation was not proper. It had consisted of such remarks as, "Do you know Jack Jones?" and so on, after the boys had said, "Where do you live?" Apparently, the topic of where one lives was considered inappropriate according to the local *mores*. The girls decided that better topics for conversation would be football, beauty parlors, skating, dancing, shows, dress, food, and school days.

MEETING NEW PEOPLE

When two social groups are habitually isolated socially and psychologically from one another, interaction is often fraught with difficulty for the members of both groups. They tend to be uncertain and fearful about their social skills in such a situation. This type of situation arose in relation to an

interschool visit described in Chapter IV. In this segregated school system, the teachers of both white and Negro pupils hoped that the interschool visits would be a means of overcoming these fears. These visits were usually planned around a mutual project. They usually included only portions of a class from each school in order to reduce the size of the total visiting group to manageable proportion.

The staff of one Negro school decided to take this opportunity to discover what social skills their pupils most needed in the area of interracial social interaction and to train them in these skills in advance of their participation in these interschool projects. Sociodrama was the chief device used to discover what social skills the pupils needed as well as to train them in the acquisition of these skills. Before the fifteen Negro pupils were to meet with fifteen white pupils to prepare hand lotion and deodorant in the chemistry lab of former's school, they held a "briefing" session to assess their social skills and to become aware of their own attitudes towards other racial groups. It was aimed to prepare the Negro pupils for whatever reaction they might meet from the white pupils and, therefore, dealt with those aspects of the visit which they thought might present a problem. It was also hoped that such

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a session might help them better to identify their feelings and reactions with the white pupils.

As the future hosts, the Negro pupils decided on four questions as possible "openers" for conversation with a visitor. These questions were: "What would you like to know about our school?" "In what ways does our school seem different from yours?" "How does it differ from what you expected?" "What did you think we would be like?" Some of the fifteen took the role of the Negro hosts; some, the role of the white visitors. The hosts left the room and were instructed to prepare themselves for the visit of the white group. The visitors were instructed in their roles as first-time comers to a Negro school to ask whatever questions and make whatever comments they thought such visitors would be likely to make.

The "visitors," in playing their roles, first showed marked inability to identify with white pupils. They projected, rather, their own attitudes. They gave their own view of their school rather than the white pupils' probable view of it. They had the white pupils express, almost exclusively, prejudiced remarks as if they could not imagine colored persons being treated by white persons in any other manner. The pupils playing hosts were all most tactful in drawing out the "visitors," but they varied greatly in the resourcefulness with which they met the visitors' spontaneous comments. (The staff were surprised at the number of mature and poised responses that were given). In these ways, these colored pupils revealed areas in which they had emotional blocking and deficient information. It was then possible to orient the training sessions specifically to overcome these deficiencies, each time constructing new ways of handling increasingly realistic situations.

GETTING AND HOLDING A JOB

Many pupils, however well prepared in the skills of job performances, lack skills for initially getting a job and for handling their relations with others, especially employers, on the job. In the initial interview, for instance, they tend to give too little information and show little interest. When they are told, as Negroes often are, that there is no opening for them, they do not know how to conclude the contact without loss of self-respect or without blaming the employment manager. Similarly, on the job many pupils were found to regard all criticisms of employers unjust, to be unable to cope with difficulties caused by their own mistakes, and to find it hard to take directions. For some pupils, particularly those of low socio-economic status or low academic ability, the resulting problems were more frequent and more acute. They had fewer skills with which to deal with them. The following sequence illustrates the use of sociodrama as training in applying for and holding a job.

In one vocational school, many girls were learning to be waitresses. In order to prepare them for dealing with unpleasant situations, for recognizing that different patrons need different treatment, and for working out particular ways of treating them, a series of sociodrama waitress-customer situations were played. In one, the pupils were confronted with complaining, fault-finding customers. Following the playing of such a situation, the teacher began leading the discussion by asking the "guests," "How did you feel towards the waitresses?" Whatever the individual variations in the ways different pupils dealt with the guests, the performance was considered adequate if the guests reported they felt favorable towards the waitress and would be glad to go to that restaurant again. Thus the class, by representing guests as well as waitresses, began to learn to test out the behavior of a waitress in the light of the human-reaction outcome in addition to the technical performance itself.

The result, however, was not generalized to a statement that "this waitress pleases customers." All that was decided was that "This waitress pleased these particular customers by the things she did and said." The kinds of expectations and needs that these customers had were then analyzed in group discussion. Two of the class comments were: "They were glad when the waitress was so careful to explain and inquire into every little thing, like saying, 'Would you think you'd like pea soup better than vegetable; it has a bacon flavor.'" "They seemed to want a lot of attention, but I think most people don't; they want to choose from the menu and have the waitress talk to them only when they ask a question." By asking each girl who played the waitress roll, "How did you decide how you would treat them?" an occasion was provided for the class to learn how different people get clues to ways of behaving that may be suitable in different situations.

On another occasion, these girls explored ways of applying for work. In the first playing of situations, the interview sequence portrayed gave a very meager structure to the roles of employers and applicants. The employers, as portrayed, merely asked questions of a brief, direct sort; and the applicant answered in the briefest possible manner as follows:

Employer: Come in. (Applicant comes in and stands near him.)

Applicant: I'm Sally Brown applying for a job.

Employer: Have you worked before?

Applicant: Yes, at Gimbel's.

Employer: Why did you quit?

Applicant: The salary was not enough.

Employer: How much do you want?

Applicant: Twenty dollars.

Employer: Write your name and address; I'll let you know tomorrow.

Discussion revealed that the pupils considered the proper role for an employer to be "to ask you things." They criticized as faulty any portrayal in which the employer obliged the applicant to volunteer information. They thought most employers resembled their picture of employers. The pupils then listed other behaviors with which a potential employer might confront an applicant, such as asking the applicant to compose a letter or to take dictation or other tests, or obliging the applicant to talk about herself rather fully.

A range of situations was then constructed to explore the alternative and better ways of behaving in job application situations. In observing the great variations in social adequacy in different situations, each pupil's awareness of the role of personality expression in gaining employment was increased. Each pupil was better able to appraise the skills she herself possessed, and where her own skills needed extension.

Several sociodrama situations were next played which dealt with the various conflicts with employers, such as receiving criticism of performance, differences of opinion with the employer or a fellow worker, and so on. Training in these situations, involving conflict and decision making, was very important to these pupils because most of them, according to their own descriptions of what happened when they lost their jobs, were inclined to interpret any such occurrences as personal affronts.

As the group diagnosed their own ways of behaving in such situations, they discovered that all but a small percentage of pupils (ten per cent) used threats and anger or else withdrew from the situation by "quitting" or by denying being at fault.

The last illustration of skills training in job situations occurred in an all-Negro high school in a segregated community where the matter of job finding involved strong emotion, fears, and antagonisms. The work was carried on in speech class. First, the pupils listed the situations where they had difficulties in communicating to other people. Then a census was taken of their experiences in regard to the kinds of excuses employers made when they applied for a job.

The purpose of these sessions was to help these pupils to assess realistically and in an objective nonpersonal way the behavior of white employers towards them and to help them develop command of themselves in situations that normally hurt and offended them.

At the suggestion of the class, the teacher described a mythical advertisement for a shipping clerk at the local wholesaler which said to apply to Miss Woodruff, the personnel manager. Pupils volunteered for the roles of the manager and applicants. The applicants were sent from the room, while

those playing the manager were instructed for their roles. Her role was set up in the following manner: she did not herself have any animosity towards Negroes, but the management had a policy of not hiring Negroes in white-collar jobs. She had been with the firm for a long time and was in full charge of the department.

A series of situations were then played, with different applicants "trying out" against this constant role of the personnel manager.

1st Applicant: Good morning, Miss Woodruff, I came to apply for the job as shipping clerk which I saw advertised in yesterday's paper.

Miss Woodruff: I'm sorry. We don't hire colored people in that capacity.

1st Applicant: Well, thanks anyway. (Leaves)

2nd Applicant: Good morning. I came to answer the ad for a shipping clerk.

Miss Woodruff: I'm sorry. We don't hire colored people.

2nd Applicant: (No Answer. Turns away.)

3rd Applicant: I saw your advertisement for a shipping clerk. I would like to apply for the job.

Miss Woodruff: I'm sorry. We don't hire colored people in that capacity.

3rd Applicant: Well, I'm sorry. (In angry tone.)

4th Applicant: Well, I have very good references and all the necessary qualifications. I don't see why my being colored should make any difference. I think I could do just as much as a white clerk.

Miss Woodruff: I'm sorry. Our policy is not to hire colored people.

4th Applicant: Could you recommend me to another place where they do hire colored people as shipping clerks?

Miss Woodruff: No, I couldn't. I know of no place.

4th Applicant: Wouldn't you reconsider and perhaps change your policy?

Miss Woodruff: It's not my policy. It's the policy of the management. I hardly think he would change.

4th Applicant: May I speak with him?

Miss Woodruff: He's not in.

4th Applicant: Well, may I leave my name and address, and if there is a possibility for my employment, will you contact me?

Miss Woodruff: Yes.

5th Applicant: Good morning, I've come to apply for the job as shipping clerk.

Miss Woodruff: I'm sorry, but we don't hire colored people.

5th Applicant: I have all the qualifications, and I'm sure, if you gave me a chance, I would prove satisfactory.

Miss Woodruff: I'm sorry, but that is a policy of the company. It isn't my personal feeling, you understand, but I'm just following instructions.

5th Applicant: Well, could I see the manager?

Miss Woodruff: I'm sorry, that couldn't be arranged. You see, I'm personnel manager in full charge of this department.

5th Applicant: Since you say that it isn't a personal feeling, would you talk with the manager for me and explain my qualifications to him? Perhaps, since

you have been here for a number of years, you could make him change his mind. May I leave my name and address in case you may want to contact me?

Miss Woodruff: Yes, I'll do what I can, but I don't feel that it will do much good.

After the scene had been played, Miss S. asked each applicant how he felt toward the personnel manager and the management when told, "We don't hire colored people."

1st Applicant: I was disgusted, but I was not angry with the personnel manager because I felt she was just doing her job. However, I did feel that such a policy was unfair.

2nd Applicant: I was angry, but not angry enough to quarrel about it. I thought she was saying what she had been told to say, but it was a very bad policy for any place of business to have.

3rd Applicant: I felt the personnel manager was prejudiced. I certainly would not want to experience the same thing again.

4th Applicant: I felt embarrassed and as if I must be inferior. At first I was angry with her, but then I realized that as I was looking for a job, I must show self-control. I wasn't certain that it was her policy or the management's, even though she said it was the management's. That's why I asked to speak with him.

5th Applicant: I felt bad. I tried not to get angry, though. I had no feeling toward her, but I wanted to see the management and try to find out why he was prejudiced. I felt that he was unfair and, if I had seen him, I would have tried to persuade him into trying colored people.

Miss S asked the class: "Would you be willing to answer similar advertisements if you had had such an experience, or would you feel too discouraged to keep trying?"

Class: (1) It might develop an inferiority complex and keep me from ever wanting to answer any advertisement.

(2) That's one of the things you learn to look for in job-hunting.

(3) Several experiences of that sort would make me want to strike back or give up.

(4) After one trial, I would go only to places where I was certain they would hire colored people.

In the class discussion that followed, everyone agreed that the applicant's primary purpose was to get the job. They felt that getting angry or showing their anger would do nothing but harm. They also agreed that specific statements of experience, references, and qualifications might have helped.

One pupil questioned an applicant's request to have the personnel manager present the case to the management. "What good would that do?" she asked. Several replied that evidently the owner or management thinks highly of the personnel manager since she has held that position for several years. In view of that, he might be willing to listen to her.

Then the question arose as to what the applicants hoped to gain from an extended conversation with her after she stated that the policy of the company was not to hire Negroes. The class felt that an attempt should be made "to get her on our side" or "to make her see our point of view." Show her that she "might have a need for us, and how the company is losing by not hiring us, even though we are colored." In this, they emphasized the necessity for leaving "a good impression" despite the rebuff. They suggested appealing to her as a person rather than as a possible employer by telling her something personal, such as what they hoped to do with the money they would earn, what they had done with previous earnings, or how badly they needed the job. One pupil suggested asking her what she would do if she were in the applicant's place and could not get a job for which she was qualified because of the color of her skin? A final suggestion was that she could have been asked, if it were possible, to give one applicant a trial for a few weeks just as an experiment to see whether or not it would work.

As was pointed out in the introduction of this chapter, the area of skills in human relations situations has been barely opened for exploration and analysis, and much remains to be done if students are to be prepared for mature ways of handling reactions with other people. What has become clear, though, is that specific and precise methods for developing human-relations skills are needed no less than for the mastery of the technical or academic analysis, and much remains to be done if students are to be prepared for skills. The descriptions of role-playing just given show its use as such a method.

CHAPTER VI

Some Classroom Methods

THREE considerations were involved in the development of classroom methods in the project: *first*, that the methods used should yield emotional satisfactions to pupils and teachers; *second*, that they should be constructed to maximize group productivity and emphasize the effectiveness of group learning; *third*, that they should be efficient and effective in acquiring particular content, ways of thinking, and sensitivities. That is, the method, whether discussion, small group work, or research, had to enable pupils to feel comfortable and satisfied and become more skillful at group work, and had to achieve the particular objectives of the course.

It was not always easy to keep these three elements together. In some high schools, concern over methods had previously been confined to getting the content across, with no awareness of the relation between content learning and learning group methods. Even where such was not the case, there was a tendency to do one thing to make pupils comfortable, another for teaching them content, and still a third for learning how to work as a group. The result was a disjointed series of activities, many of which controverted in their form the very purpose others were designed to teach. This could occur because little had been done to analyze systematically how methods could be constructed to carry out all three functions.

Many teachers had no idea what made one discussion go and what made another confused, fuzzy, and unsatisfactory. Others couldn't understand why one committee report was effective and interesting, and another dull, boring to other pupils; or clearly the work of one student rather than that of the committee. The desire to increase the practical usefulness of various methods prompted identification of some of the principles, the application of which seemed to determine their effectiveness. In this chapter will be described principles involved in discussions and in committee work.

DISCUSSION PATTERNS

For many teachers, a discussion has merit, no matter at which point in the teaching sequence it occurs or what its special purpose. Since the Inter-group Education program emphasized the sharing of experiences and group methods of work and since pooling of ideas was essential to certain kinds of learning, discussion as a classroom technique was used increasingly. Consequently, teachers began to evaluate the effectiveness of their discussion patterns and to wonder why some discussions seemed successful and others did not. They had a tendency to look for answers in the immediate pattern and could not always find them there.

One factor on which the effectiveness of discussion depends is that the patterns of discussion need to be varied according to the several functions a discussion serves and according to its location in the learning sequence. For example, a discussion used to pool suggestions for an idea not yet explored requires questions, participation, and a focus different from one that is supposed to analyze the conclusions from a series of panel reports.

As groups of teachers experimented with patterns of discussion, several fairly clear-cut functions came to be differentiated—functions which could be related to the several steps in any learning sequence. It has already been stated that pupils learn generalizations and new ideas by a sequence which includes examining a series of facts or descriptive accounts; then, where necessary, securing additional data and verification; then, analyzing for common elements and for distinctions; next, attempting interpretations; and, finally, formulating generalizations. Of course, these steps are sometimes extended, condensed, or reversed in a given sequence. A discussion can assist at several points in the sequence of learning. It can assist better than any other method when a range of experiences, insights, or interpretations are needed. It can serve, *first*, in pooling initial information and experiences, *second*, in exchanging results of fact-finding and research, and, *finally*, in analysis and interpretation. At the point where a new topic is being introduced, discussion is most useful to pool and to exchange experiences and, thereby, to involve pupils' interest and create a basis of common experience and a framework for the total class thinking.

The main characteristics of discussion with these functions are somewhat as follows. It is relatively unstructured. A variety of aspects are brought out and perhaps enlarged only a bit, but no attempt is made to interpret, judge, or analyze the factors in the descriptions given. Appraisals, critical reactions, and factual support are kept at a minimum. The participation should be as wide as can be secured since the greater the variety of viewpoints and

experience contributed, the more clearly will appear the present range and nature of thinking, and the more pupils will have a concern in what is done next with this material.

Several procedures have proved useful in this opening-up and enlarging kind of discussion. Questions used to initiate discussion will be open; that is, they will elicit descriptive replies, rather than judgments or "answers." Examples of such questions are, "What kinds of things have you noticed about newcomers?" or "What was discipline like in New England in Puritan times?" Thus, it may draw on either personal experience or previously studied content. Sometimes a story, an excerpt from a book, or some one pupil's description of his experience may be given first and the discussion launched from this with some questions such as, "What do you think of this?" or "Has anything like this ever happened to you?" Sometimes, this discussion may take the shape of a problem census, such as asking pupils what difficulties they see in their relations to each other in the classroom.

Since the main purpose is to keep all pupils involved in what is to come, to pool viewpoints, and to get the "ball rolling," it is desirable to get as long a chain of responses to each question as is possible before proceeding to the next one. The role of the teacher is mainly to reformulate the comments so as to make them clear to everyone and to put them in proper perspective when this is needed, to list statements on the blackboard when they are later to be used for further study as in the problem census, and to restate ideas to enable pupils to participate. The teacher need not at this stage refine points, ask for proof, classify, or even hold to a single focus; although his initial question will serve to give a focus or framework in a broad sense, such as limiting the discussion to our relations with brothers and sisters or to what life was like in 1760 in the colonies.

Another function of discussion is to consolidate work done either by individuals or by groups, if these individuals or groups have worked on different aspects of the same problem. This is what usually takes place in connection with reports on research by individuals, by committees, or by panels. In this case, the structure is in part set by the form of the reports and in part by the general ideas or questions to which these studies were to bring some answers or enlightenment. Therefore, longer formal presentations are a necessary part of the discussion, and the participation by the rest of the group is limited to giving comparative evidence and to raising questions of clarification of points presented.

A third function of discussion is to analyze, to develop an idea, to consolidate a concept. For example, the pupils may consider in which ways

the various groups coming to America had common problems in adjustment or how the various efforts on behalf of civic rights contributed to our personal freedom.

This type of discussion is usually effective after pupils have had a chance to absorb ideas, to study, to gather some facts, and to make connections with their own experience. It is, therefore, not the kind of discussion which serves to initiate a new study on a new topic. It usually involves some analysis and appraisal, the thoroughness of which depends on where in the sequence it is undertaken. For example, analysis is needed when problems listed in a problem census are to be classified by type and ranked in order to be studied. Looking for common elements is as necessary as expressing preferences. A different analysis, one demanding more facts, is required when the job is to pick out, for example, the similarities and dissimilarities between United States and British government structures and explain them. This kind of discussion usually requires a fair degree of structuring, a fairly strict hewing to the line, and the avoidance of what usually are called the tangential developments—and tangents are sure to come if insufficient descriptive ground-work has preceded discussion. The participation at this point hinges on the preparation and may be limited if only part of the class has been involved in such preparation. The questions must have a sequence, too, in order to lead, step by step, to the specific goal, be that the clarification of an idea, the differentiation of factors, or the classification or the formulation of a concept.

Often what is needed here is differentiation between two seemingly conflicting concepts, where the apparent contradiction interferes with interpretations. For example, in one class, a panel had described from a series of novels various aspects of life in New England. The chairman concluded by saying, "We see, therefore, that even though New England is different in geography, in the work people do, in their customs and their traditions, they are really just like all the rest of the people in the United States. That is, the people of New England are the common people, just as are the people of the Midwest, or the Far West." This conclusion seemed to leave the whole class up in the air. Several pupils persisted on points of difference that they had read in other books which proved, they thought, how very different New Englanders and New England must be from themselves and their state. Quite apart from the fact that the panel had lumped together 1780 and 1910 and Maine and Boston in drawing their conclusions about New England, there was a basic difficulty in that the concepts which they had accepted—that men are alike in their needs and equal in worth—seemed to conflict with a new concept about

cultural and environmental variation. In this class, a large part of the difficulty was resolved by bringing out not only that, "There are as many different kinds of people, in the sense of personality variations, in New England as elsewhere," to which all agreed, but also that, "People as a group learn different things and develop different patterns of life, depending on geography, their occupations, how isolated they are from other groups, how much mixture in occupations and tradition and pattern of life is represented in their own group, and so on." Then the class could take these two points and recapitulate what had just been described, picking out the facts about New England that were related to the second point. They began to see that cultural learning is an acceptable concept and that it does not conflict with the concept of men having basic needs in common.

Study of discussions in classroom after classroom revealed certain common difficulties to be repeating themselves. One of these was organizing all discussion in such a way that it could perform only one of the several functions just described. This resulted in limiting the varieties of group thinking. For example, discussions might well be set up to allow for browsing and pooling. Questions were open, many descriptive answers came from pupils, and teachers did not press for conclusions. Where this was the only form of discussion, however, pupils never learned to challenge their own assumptions to secure evidence to verify their descriptive observations and interpretations; they did not learn how to derive generalizations from a series of instances. This happened particularly where, because there had previously been little exchange of experiences, teachers went to the extreme of bending all activities to allowing pupils to describe experiences, express opinions, and pool information from books they had read. Nevertheless, where the foundation for browsing discussion had been laid, it was easy to move on to procedures necessary for the next step of fact-finding and analysis.

Another and related difficulty was in not being able to permit discussion to go slowly and developmentally. The nature of teachers' questions sometimes forced general appraisal or judgment ahead of allowing the experience of the group to come into play and to be made cumulative, or before allowing a kind of refreshing of memory on details to prepare for generalized judgment. This happened in an eighth grade where, to conclude a study of British government, the teacher asked, without success, that pupils tell how it was like and unlike the United States government. Later analysis by the teacher showed that the difficulty lay in the fact that these pupils had not studied comparable aspects of the United States government and that no recapitulation of those aspects had preceded comparison.

Often the mistake is in starting analysis too soon by pressing "why" questions after each student's statement. For example, if only one person describes an incident, gives a fact, or presents an idea, and a question as to "why" (explanation), or "where does this belong" (classification) follows it immediately, discussion is cut off, as (a) only one person in class is involved and could respond and (b) the basis for judgement is limited and hence such reactions as come are meager in content. If, instead, the discussion is kept open by asking several students to add on the same level as the first one, more people can make connection with the idea, and they will have a fuller content from which to respond and to think about the "why." Many students have thus had a chance to contribute particulars and to watch and partake in the building up of concepts. Each student gets involved because "his particular" becomes a part of the concept.¹

For example, in one class, pupils were reporting on their interviews on what people meant by *rights*. One pupil said that a religious leader whom she had interviewed listed the opportunity to hold jobs and the right to vote for the party in which one believed. Instead of these two being placed in a list of rights that other pupils had obtained from their interviewees—businessmen, labor leaders, teachers—and then all of the listed rights being considered from the standpoint of what ideas on rights were represented, the teacher questioned this single treatment thus: "What criticism would you make of these?" Appearing when it did, this question was premature and cut off the class from listing their findings and thinking about them as a group. Instead, they became busy "finding out" what the teacher might have had in mind as a proper definition of rights. Many teachers attempt to short-cut the development of generalizations by themselves, giving the pupils the concept or generalization at the beginning. They run into two troubles here. In some cases pupils refuse to accept the teacher's statement. In others, although pupils parrot the idea, it is obvious that they do not grasp its implications and cannot see how it applies to life situations. When this was pointed out, some teachers went to the opposite extreme and took no part in guiding discussion, which left interpretations fuzzy and conclusions often unrelated to facts.

Improving discussion procedure was far more difficult where the class had become frozen into a pattern in which all exchange was between pupil and teacher and was in the form of giving "right" answers, or where it consisted of making interpretations, judgments and analyses prior to getting

¹ A similar principle, for example, operates in identifying several possible situations for sociodramas before selecting one to be played.

out descriptive comment. Yet both of these patterns were found again and again to characterize classroom methods in general use. Rewording of questions to de-emphasize giving facts and getting "right" answers was the procedure which refocused discussion in the former case. In the latter case, not only new forms for questions but also a different conviction about how learning happens and what range of descriptive comment must precede interpretation had to be developed through testing out the procedure again and again.

Impatience with the browsing and pooling steps often stemmed from failure by teachers to recognize or to accept the importance of just such browsing discussions, both for the insight and for the emotional comfort of the pupils. Where teachers had been geared always to drilling pupils in facts, it took time for them to accept the necessity for having some classroom exchange for the primary purposes of creating group feeling, building rapport between teacher and pupil, and fostering group interest and common involvement in the same problem.

Of course, none of these discussion patterns occurs in pure form. Most classroom discussion flows from one kind of thinking and function to another. A couple of illustrations of discussion sequence follow. One of these especially illustrates a method by which reports were used in a class discussion without turning the session into a stale reading of papers seriatim, without using a disconnected series of individual expressions and leaving out the class, or without seeming to single out particular pupils around whose reports or papers develop the whole discussion. The class had for nine weeks studied different groups coming to America at different periods, utilizing the experiences of their own ancestors and reading about or interviewing a sampling of other groups to extend the picture. They had considered the adjustments each group made, what they brought, why they settled where they did, and how they changed the community to which they came. The concluding assignment was for each pupil to write on "What Is an American?" After they had written their own essays, they read de Crevecoeur's essay of the same title. When the papers came in, the teacher read them over and then selected the ones which represented differences both in definition of an American and in viewpoint toward who could be called an American: one paper which maintained that only people born here were Americans; one which maintained that an American was a person who met certain obligations as a citizen and to democracy; another which held that anyone living in the United States should enjoy the privileges and benefits of being an American. When the class came together for the session at which they

were to pool the statements each had prepared individually, the teacher opened with a sort of browsing session in which random comments were made to the question, "Well, who is an American?" After six or seven remarks, one girl said, "He's a person who is born here. The others are citizens but not Americans." As several pupils protested, the teacher turned to her and asked, "Would you like to read your whole paper so they will see just what you mean by that?" The girl then read the following paper on "An American:"

An American to me is any person who is born in the United States. Persons born in other countries and who come here receive their citizenship papers and live here as an American citizen, to me, even though they are citizens of the United States, are not Americans. If we went to Germany and went through all the ropes, we wouldn't be called Germans; if we went to China and went through the same things, we couldn't be called Chinese. So why should people who come here be called Americans?

Although they would have all the rights as Americans do, they should be called citizens of the United States and should not be recognized as Americans.

No matter in what country a person is born, there is a certain pride, a happiness to be able to say in what country you were born. Why not give that country the credit or otherwise, rather than changing as you go through each country. If you loved your original country, you wouldn't want to change your title anyway—would you?

When this girl had finished, one pupil in particular insisted that she would not agree. To this the teacher responded, "Okay, Janet, you read yours." Janet then read her paper on "Who and What is an American?"

The first week of our American culture class, Mary raised a question that many of us had asked ourselves—"What makes an American?" Certainly, this is a difficult question to answer because it involves many different ideas. Come to think of it, just what *is* an American? Has anyone ever answered this all-important question?

Yes, a few people could say what an American is, but could they also answer the question, "What makes what they scornfully call a foreigner?"

Some people say that an American is someone who was born in this country. Technically so, perhaps this is true; but can't the other patriots, those we label "foreigners," be called Americans, also?

Americanism, to me, is a state of mind, not a technical term. Many "Americans," born and raised in America, actually have no love for their native land. They live in America, yes. This is where they earn their living and spend their time; but, in actuality, they possess little or no patriotism and love of the United States.

I have always felt that people of foreign birth who make no effort to capture the English language and who live in their own little knots of the "old country" are not true Americans. Many of these people were born in this country, but I do not consider them active members of the United States of America.

Americanism depends upon the spirit of patriotism which lives in the souls of men. Many people speak at great length about their great patriotic feelings, but brotherhood comes from the heart, not just from the lips.

Therefore, a true American is that citizen of America with true patriotism in his heart, whether his ancestors came on the Mayflower or whether he may have come very recently. This person, regardless of race or creed, is a true American.

When she concluded, the teacher asked, "Have you always entertained this point of view—that is, before this unit, did you think this way?" "Yes, this has added to my viewpoint, but I felt that way."

Someone raised the question as to whether America is not after all a melting pot and what does that mean, but several pupils went back to challenging the first viewpoint—one boy insisting, "You've heard an awful lot about my grandfather in here, but I can't help it. You're going to hear more. Now he wasn't born here, but he's been here forty years and I'd like to see anyone say he isn't an American." After a couple of related remarks, someone injected, "Well, I think it is someone who is a good citizen. That's the important thing." This pupil was asked to read her paper on "What I Think Decides Who Is an American."

Webster's dictionary gives this definition of an American: "One who is a native of America." And to many people that is all "American" means, a person born or naturalized, as citizens of this country called the United States of America. However, I suspect that some individuals do not regard being a naturalized citizen as making you a real American. To them, real Americans are those who come from "old-stock."

But to my way of thinking, anyone in our land is really *American* if he lives up to points of good citizenship. I think the first point is taking an interest in government and voting; by really knowing what is going on and fighting for your beliefs in whatever way is open to you—elections, forum meetings, letters to your editor, *etc*; by voting for the man you honestly believe in, not for the one your friends do or just not voting at all. For example, in one of my classes we were discussing the outcome of the election, and one girl said she didn't know how she would ever make up her mind whom to vote for when she grew up, but guesses she'd vote the way her husband did. If she has no more mind of her own in that regard, she doesn't even deserve the right to vote.

Also, an American would tolerate others—their beliefs, nationalities, customs, and so forth. I admit this is sometimes hard to do. I myself am sometimes prejudiced as almost everyone is sometime or other. But I guess, though, to be really American, I should be able (or at least make the best effort) to understand and get along with others, because they may be also trying to understand and get along with me.

Third point would be to respect the laws and the people whom we elect to make and enforce them because the laws usually are for the good of the majority of the people and the lawmakers are chosen by the majority of the people. If they don't do right, the people will get rid of them if, as I said in the first point, they vote. Other countries may start a revolution anytime something doesn't suit them, but our way is to do it peacefully in the democratic way.

Also, a person isn't a true American if he uses public office, a sacred trust, or the distress of others for his own personal gains. Examples of this are those who, during the war by means of fixing contracts and so forth, made enough to make the war profitable.

Even now one of the pupils spoke up, "Well, I certainly like Harriet and I'm good friends with Janet but I can't agree with either one of them. That just isn't it. Everyone who lives in America should have a part in it." She was asked to read her paper, "What I Think Decides Who Is an American."

In my opinion, anyone who is fortunate enough to live in America is an American. Not all people who live in the United States are naturalized, but they still make up America. Every person, no matter who he is, makes up the culture of the United States. His religion, his language, his customs all melt into the customs of the other people who live here and make up the American culture. The Negro customs blend with the Polish, Hungarian, Serbian, Spanish, and all other nationality customs to make up the American customs. This is true with music, art, literature, cooking, and psychology—all blend to make America. In my opinion, there is no difference whether a person has brown skin, red skin, or yellow skin; they still have red blood, bones, eyes, and brains just like my own. As long as they make up America, they should have a part in its government, its schools, and its homes. They should have just as good homes and cars and should have the same opportunity to vote, to be appointed or elected to office, and to go to good schools.

There was some discussion next as to whether they were not getting confused over a word and whether their concern should be with the spirit, not with a definition. The teacher did not attempt at this point to make a judgment or resolve the discussion, or even to clarify the point of confusion. Instead, he concluded the session by playing *Ballad for Americans*.

The significant aspects of this discussion were: the teacher had selected those who were to be called on in class on the basis that the selection would reveal a range of ideas and show progressively a more expansive concept of what an American is: each pupil who read a paper did so as a natural next step in a spontaneous group exploration; other pupils might equally well have been the ones called on had the discussion fallen that way, since their papers sampled in most cases comparable viewpoints; this pattern avoided putting "on the spot" the first pupil whose paper represented an unpopular viewpoint, while still making available to the class that point of view and that particular definition. The teacher's prior analysis for this purpose, namely, summarizing and concluding a sequence of finding out and analyzing, enabled him to provide a framework for thinking in a manner which is at once economical and avoids "giving the word." The final step was for the teacher, at the following session, to clarify the confusion in the thinking of the pupils of the class by simply making distinctions between American-foreign, and American and non-American on an ethnic basis and American and un-American as an expression of a particular ethical and political viewpoint.

Another example points up the importance of a sequence of questions in reaction to a story. It was used as an "opener" for a unit dealing with equality of opportunity.

I. Introductory activity

- A. Class read together "The Kiskis" from *New Narratives* by Blanche Williams to introduce the situation which vividly portrays how extreme poverty and accompanying circumstances affect feelings in regard to associations with other people.

B. Discussion follows:

1. How did the Kiskis feel about having a lunch different in quantity and kind from that of the other pupils? How do you know?
2. How did they feel about wearing the gunny sacks for shoes? Why?
3. Was there any difference in the feelings among the three Kiskis? Which one seemed to be the least sensitive? Why?
4. Why wouldn't the Kiskis join the games with the other pupils?
5. What were the attitudes of the other pupils towards them? Did they show any antagonism?
6. How did the teacher treat them?
7. How did their feelings change when they had new shoes and butter for their bread?
8. Were they still uncommunicative? Why?
9. How did they change after the candy episode?
10. What was the cause of their low economic status?
11. Who was responsible for the betterment of their situation?
12. In what other ways are people affected by hard luck or unemployment besides a "not belonging" feeling?
13. Are there other factors that set people apart besides lack of money?
14. Do other people, besides those in low economic strata of society, ever feel that they don't "belong"? Can you name some instances? What were the reasons for feeling so? Were the reasons real or unfounded?

This example illustrates some of the features of the pooling or "opener" kind of discussion. The questions were addressed to details of the story, each chosen for its essential contribution to the main idea, which was, "There are many ways in which people do not 'belong'" and "Opportunity to belong is itself a part of equality of opportunity." Each "angle" is explored in turn, first on a descriptive level, as by "Was there any difference in feeling among the Kiskis?" or followed with such questions as, "How do you know?" or "Why do you think so?" As the questions proceed, they require increasingly more abstract thinking and the pulling together of many details into one comparative account. The last question opens up consideration of bases for belonging other than the ones described in the book—thus preparing for the next step in the sequence. Discussion along this pattern allows each student a chance to enter at some point.

Our final example compares two sets of questions, also plans for book discussion.

Very often, in connection with sensitizing experiences, the psychological sequence of questions in discussion is extremely important. The tendency of most teachers is to ask the most general and evaluative questions first, because these naturally seem the most important. However, asking such questions first makes it extremely difficult for pupils to develop their thinking and reactions to the situations. The excerpt below illustrates a list of questions concerning pupils' reactions to books which is faulty in its psychological sequence.

1. What is the main problem for adjustment in this story?
2. How did the people involved overcome this problem?
3. Who are the characters in the story?
4. What started the problem?
5. If they moved, why?
6. Were there any minor problems? If so, what?
7. What did they have to leave behind them that was important to them? Why?
8. What did they find in the new situation that was similar to what they left behind?
9. What kind of people caused the predicament?
10. What, that was important to them, could they take with them? Why?
11. What sort of hardships did they meet in their travel?
12. What hardships did they find in their new place?
13. What were their feelings about leaving?
14. What were their feelings about arriving at their destination?
15. How did it make you feel?
16. What was your strongest feeling about this poem?
17. In what way did this change your feeling or reaction? (Be specific.)

If the same questions were laid out in better psychological sequence, something like the following order of questions would seem to be more effective:

1. Who are the characters in this story? If they moved, why?
2. What did they have to leave behind them that was important to them?
3. What did they find in the new situation that was similar to what they left behind?
4. What sort of hardships did they meet in their travels?
5. What hardships did they find in the new places?
6. What were their feelings about leaving?
7. What were their feelings about arriving?
8. What is the main problem of adjustment in all of these stories?
9. What started the problem?
10. How did the people involved overcome this problem?
11. How did the story make you feel?

In the first set of discussion questions, each question can be answered by itself. The answer to one does not lead toward the formulating of other questions or cumulatively building information and reaction.

In the second discussion sequence, the first two questions call for the identification of particulars in the reading. The subsequent three questions ask for the first level of generalizations. The next group of questions calls for identification of feelings, and the final questions call for over-all generalizations and personal reactions on this general level. The most important understandings come as a result of piling up opinions and feelings on the part of the whole class. The sequence of questions must be so planned as to prolong this process rather than to short-cut it. Even when the first few pupils seem to get the idea readily, an effort should be made to get the less perceptive pupils involved, by allowing sufficient explicit material to be stated so that they too can grasp the idea.

COMMITTEES

In most schools co-operating in the project, much classroom work was carried on in small groups, committees, or panels. At first, teachers tended to use these small groups indiscriminately, at any point in classroom sequence with any kind of assignment. As a result, they frequently reported lack of success with them. Also, it appeared that, although many junior and senior high-school pupils had supposedly worked in committees for years, they actually did not have skills for working and learning with others, as committees supposedly required. They often produced, instead, a series of individual reports. Even where five or six pupils as a committee worked together well and produced a good result, the several committees in a class often had trouble pooling their results or found that each had done the same thing.

As we appraised the effectiveness of the classroom procedures of various kinds, the work committee came in for scrutiny also. These were the questions which, it appeared, had to be answered: What arrangement of pupils will enable them to work best together? What topics or projects are essentially committee rather than individual jobs? How can pupils learn procedures for working together?

In the composition of committees, as elsewhere, one has to watch that the psychological relations among members facilitate their functioning as a group. If working together proves difficult, the committee may split or members may work alone. For this reason, we experimented a good deal with the use of sociometric data in composing groups. In addition, it seemed impor-

tant for pupils to work with others whom they might not choose to work with initially, but who, in actuality, had interests like their own. Eventually the following two criteria were found to provide the most adequate method of composing committees:

1. For each committee, see to it that each person has with him at least one other person with whom he has chosen to work. This plan provides what is technically called the psychological network or the social integration of the group which facilitates the expression of ideas. This is especially true if a chain of choices is so set up that the choices interrelate all members. Those unchosen by others should, at least, have their own first choice in the same group with them. If the group is composed of a few small cliques, it usually breaks into its independent parts because they are unable to work together. Such a situation occurred in the case of one committee which was composed of one unchosen child and two pairs of pupils in which the members of each pair had chosen each other but had not chosen either member of the other pair.²
2. Attention needs also to be given to the distribution and balance of the skills, temperamental factors, and leadership qualities represented in any one committee. For example, it is desirable that each group has someone of the type who can hold a group together. If there are people on the committee who need a lot of "social space," there must be others on it who are willing to give it. Two pupils with aggressive tendencies and preconceptions of how things should be done usually block the work of the group because time is spent in arguing instead of getting work done. People who get ideas readily from books need to be mixed with those who like to use other sources. Those who tend to give random ideas need to be combined with others who can analyze and classify. Thus they learn from each other while at the same time making complementary contributions to a common task.

Interest in the same topic is, of course, a facilitating condition, but not an all-important one if the second criterion is fulfilled.

In any classroom, teachers will wish to compose committees on different bases, sometimes to allow sociometric choices, sometimes to foster balance and exchange of skills, and sometimes to use interest as a focus. Each of these approaches not only will supply emotional comfort but also will provide the opportunity for pupils to extend their skills for working with different kinds of people and to broaden their appreciation of others' skills.

The nature of a committee assignment should be such as to require group attack. Social cohesiveness or interpersonal relations alone is, at best, a minimal condition if one function of the committee is to learn to think and plan together. Furthermore, where the task assigned to committees can be done just as well by individuals, there is no chance to learn the peculiar advantage and unique quality of group work.

² For a fuller description of committee structure, see Jennings, *Sociometry In Group Relations*, pages 54-58.

Each committee task ought to depend upon five or six pupils' joint efforts, and, in the same way, the tasks of the several committees should together produce a total result that no one committee could achieve alone. If each committee studies the English colonists exhaustively, there is little value in combining committee reports; whereas, if one takes the English colonists; another, the Dutch settlers; a third, the later Polish immigrants, and comparable points are explored for each, all committees will have evidence to contribute toward such an over-all question as "Why people came to America" or "Why they settled where they did." From these related data, conclusions can be drawn about people coming to America.

Sometimes committees are not used when the task is essentially a group task; this practice creates inconsistency between the content to be learned and the learning method by which it is to be acquired; the learning activity may even directly deny the concepts it is supposedly teaching. For example, one class was carrying on the study of the community problems that most directly affected them. The pupils were to identify what factors were underlying each problem, and the teacher assumed that from this project they would learn that there are various ways of attacking any problem, that differences between people make working together on problems difficult, but that group methods are most fruitful.

The pupils worked either individually or in pairs, choosing topics the teacher had prepared. At no time, except perhaps in the final reporting on what they had done, did the scheme of work laid out by the teacher provide for group consideration of problems, for group proposals of solutions; in short, for experiencing as a working group the problems involved in democratic group effort. Yet it was their comprehension of these very problems that their teacher wished to increase through this project.

In this case, the inconsistency occurred in part because of the failure to state explicitly ahead of time the goals which it had been tacitly assumed existed. Teaching these goals was, as a result, not clearly enough provided for. The three learnings listed above were outlined *post facto* by the teacher and with considerable effort. He remarked, "But, of course, I wanted to teach *that*." However, since he failed to identify them when he made his course plans, he had set up a learning situation which made learning these concepts in any intrinsic way unlikely.

In addition, committee assignments too often suffer, as do general assignments, from lack of common focus or from being focused on generalities which do not delimit the area of consideration sufficiently to allow pupils to

grasp it. For example, one of the earliest committee assignments in connection with the study of American people, after the ethnic groups to be studied had been chosen, was for one committee to study the feelings of all groups of people, for another to study the problems of all groups, and for a third to study their adjustments. This type of assignment predicated the very first learnings on differentiations which of necessity could become clear only after prolonged study. Pupils could not possibly see in their initial steps in studying the various ethnic groups where a problem left off, a feeling began, or adjustments were made until they delved into the material a good deal; yet in this case, they needed to see what was involved in order to study at all. Furthermore, the available materials were not organized according to topics of that nature; books and pamphlets usually deal with groups of people as such. Each committee would thus have had to consider all materials available on the unit to make any headway at all—a pretty stiff task for most high-school people and an unnecessary one at this stage. When committee reports were made, each was complete in itself, and there was no provision for class concentration on common points. Those not on the committee could listen, but could not contribute.

When the same unit was taught the second time, the committees were arranged by ethnic groups and the topics, previously assigned to separate committees, became the questions to be answered by each committee relative to each ethnic group.

This method allowed the group to focus on something tangible, but at the same time, because of the inclusion of more general questions, the group was challenged to work as a group and not as a number of individuals reporting disconnected pieces of individual work.

It takes some time for pupils to learn how to work effectively in committees. Skill for working together must be learned, even when the topic or task necessitates joint thinking and effort and when the committee has been composed with attention to interrelations between members, to distribution of talents for the job at hand, and to balance in temperaments. It is difficult to make a sudden transition from the recitation method to committee work because pupils have had no opportunity to acquire the skills needed for working together effectively. As a result, either they waste time or the teacher is "run ragged" trying to help several committees at the same time. When the transition to committee work involves as well a transition from text to source materials and to a new type of content, pupils face too many new things at once. It is usually advisable to have the first set of committees work on more-or-less familiar subject matter and use familiar kinds of materials. Skill in managing

themselves as a group can thus become their main task at this stage. New kinds of topics which require new skills in handling material should be introduced only after the pupils have become familiar with efficient group functioning.

Generally speaking, small group work was most effective once some pre-practice in method had been provided, perhaps through a total class analysis. Pupils needed some familiarity with the directing ideas, some criteria for selecting information they needed, and some idea of the purpose of the study before they could work independently with any degree of effectiveness.

Group assessment of committee work is one procedure which economically utilizes each preceding work experience to build insights and methods for the next one. This assessment can serve to make all the pupils aware that group work can be more successful and yield more satisfactions. It can also promote the mutual exchange of skills and insights into how groups operate. For example, a pupil who does not see how he and a classmate could produce something jointly can learn from hearing how two of his classmates did it in their committee. Obviously, such learning depends upon concreteness of detail in telling exactly what was done and in what situation and in avoiding cover words like "co-operation" or "sharing" as a substitute for precise behavioral description.

Some teachers have used this scheme of questions as a means of facilitating such class assessment:

1. What things helped your committee get its job done? (In each case replies are made concrete by inquiring: Who did it? When? What exactly did he do? Instead, therefore, of saying, "Everyone co-operated," a pupil will describe what the situation was and what each person did.)
2. What things that happened made it hard for the committee to get the job done? (Once descriptions of particular things have been pooled, the additional question about them might be raised: "What were the consequences of Jane's doing this?" or "Well, what difference did that make?")
3. What would have made committee work easier at this time?

Here, as in other "pooling" discussions, it is important to allow a sufficient number of descriptive comments from several pupils before trying to make any interpretations or analyses. Once, however, several pupils have described what helped get things done in their committee, the group can locate common elements which facilitate committee work, such as, "It helps if every committee has somebody on it who knows how to get the material we need," or "Committees get more done when every member helps decide what each is going to do and everyone is satisfied."

A further help in setting up committees is to break down the steps in a

job and between each step allow for exchange and analysis with other pupils. The sequence might run something like this: *first*, one or two periods for each committee to decide what it wants to do, then a day for the several committees to compare notes on how they did this; then, a *second* work session when each committee decides how to proceed on the job, followed by a discussion in which these decisions are pooled; *finally*, carrying out the work itself and analyzing the procedure as described above. This breaking down of the total committee job can minimize any committee's getting off on a wrong track early or being unable to carry out its project at all because of initial difficulties in getting started. It simultaneously provides training in how committees can work and helps each committee with its task, through fostering total class interest and allowing pupils to make suggestions and exchange ideas.

CHAPTER VII

Two Sequences of Curriculum Planning

BECAUSE they present a finished product, reports of curriculum planning often create the illusion that the planning proceeded smoothly and easily. A completed outline does not reveal the difficult process which the planning group went through to achieve it, the frustrations they encountered, and the discouragements and difficulties they had to overcome.

Curriculum revision is not an easy process, unless it is confined only to rearranging old sections of content into new patterns. As the project staff observed the planning process in operation, the major difficulty seemed to them to be that there were too many things to be learned by the teachers at the same time. Frequently, emotional resistances had to be overcome, because the new approach represented threats to well-established habits while new awarenesses, new techniques, and new ways of thinking had to be developed.

For these reasons, the sequence of planning and in-service training of the intergroup project was both slow and complex. Most curriculum programs took from two to four years to develop. The planning and training sequence had to allow for the meandering and browsing that are usually involved in learning by methods of self-discovery. Often, particularly each fall when new teachers joined the planning groups, there seemed to be two steps backward for every step forward. In no case was the line to the goal a straight one.

Planning and production proceeded in cycles which were affected by the emotional reactions of the group and their rate of comprehensive mastery of the task. Periods of productivity in ideas were followed by a slow exploration of how these ideas really applied. Periods of enthusiasm and understanding alternated with periods of discouragement and confusion. Practical application was preceded by systematic organization and analyses which often involved a long period when nothing seemed to happen but which actually was a period of gestation: some time later the initial, vaguely understood ideas seemed to come to life in the form of some practical application.

As these explorations proceeded, means were gradually devised to overcome the various emotional blockings and to inject clarification, without at the same time supplying outright the direction or the answers. The data-finding or investigations most often served this purpose; consultants' classroom visits and informal discussions with individual teachers also accomplished this end.

Such apparently roundabout methods were used for definite reasons. *First*, the intergroup project was supposed to experiment with new approaches to intergroup education; had the project staff fixed the directions and content of activities, the range, richness, and variety of the approaches that were developed would have been limited. *Second*, it seemed educationally wise and sound to have teachers learn by doing. *Finally*, the project staff was little wiser than the teachers about the particular content to be included in these programs, at least at the beginning. The operation of all these factors meant that the ideas and content which eventually emerged were the product of teamwork of the project staff as specialists in curriculum planning and intergroup relations and of teachers as specialists in content and teaching procedures.

In order to make clear what is involved in the process of curriculum planning, this publication is being concluded with accounts of two groups who met to plan new curriculum sequences. The first group met to plan a course in local history for the ninth grade which combined history, literature, and guidance and was to be taught by the planners, while the rest of this school's staff helped in processes of diagnosis and in planning the school activities. The second group, a city school system committee, met to work out a course in American culture for the eleventh grade, a course which combined American history and literature into a year's study of the people of America and their patterns of living.

Special attention will be given in these two accounts to the strategies and methods of planning and to the human relations aspects of the planning group. The first account illustrates especially the time span necessary for a plan to mature into a sound instructional pattern; the various ups and downs and the points at which they occurred are included. The second account emphasizes the advantages of working together as a group.

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF THE COURSE ON OUR STATE

Often people ask the project staff as we describe our work: "Just what do you do in a school?" "How do you get teachers started?" When we mention that in-service training takes place as part of the development of the school's program, people usually wonder, "Don't you have to change teachers' attitudes and teach them some background first?"

The following "log" is a sort of chronological anatomy of a three-year development in Tower school. It is offered in the hope that it will answer some of these questions. It will, at least, show the slow and even meandering way in which an average group of teachers, with no strong previous concerns about intergroup education, went about planning a program of intergroup education in their school—the way they had their share of hard work, frustration, and confusion, mixed with feelings of achievement, satisfaction, and success.

This log is reconstructed from a voluminous record kept at the intergroup project office (copies of which were also sent to the school) and from the school co-ordinator's briefer yearly summary of what happened between the consultants' visits and of the reactions the school staff had to these visits.

September, 1945. A letter was sent from the American Council on Education inviting the school system to participate in the study. Tower School was one among the six volunteering as an experimental center.

October 1 and 2, 1945. First visit of the consultant. With the instructional committee, we explored what human relations problems there were in the school and surveyed the present program. The staff mentioned the fact that their Jewish girls feared what would happen to them in high school, that there was an unwarranted general feeling of community superiority among the pupils. They also thought they might want to look into what they taught about the American heritage. To make a start, the school staff tentatively agreed that the school might work on (a) extending sensitivity through the use of literature, (b) planning to provide for some community experiences for their pupils, (c) re-examining their ninth-grade course in local history. These first meetings were small groups, and were each one hour in length.

November 30, 1945. First meeting with the representatives of other co-operating schools in the city. The possibility of setting up a community advisory council was discussed, as it was generally felt that one should learn from the community what the problems of group relations were. However, the representative of Tower School did not see any importance of such a council to her school and section of the community.

This meeting was followed by a staff meeting at Tower to try to identify further problems in their school. Conclusions: (1) Tower has a Jewish minority well accepted at the Junior High School. (2) The majority culture at Tower has very limited opportunity and experiences in seeing how minority groups live. (3) We probably don't have many vital problems of human relations.

According to the local co-ordinator, the school staff wondered why the school entered the project anyway and was a bit embarrassed at not having anything more serious to offer in the way of problems. The project consultant wondered how to go about revealing to these people that a community did not need to have broken noses in order to merit an Intergroup Education program.

December 11 and 12, 1945. Visit of a specialist in literature from the intergroup project to follow through on the idea of sensitizing. For two days, small teacher groups browsed around the subject of literature, listing fiction and discussing the kinds of books that widen expectations of differences and deal with acceptance and rejection. The problems of the school were restated again much in the same terms as during the first meeting. The suggestion was made that something be done with the PTA with respect to prejudice.

This series of meetings was useful in developing awareness on the part of a large portion of the staff of the possibilities of a program in literature and in developing some familiarity with recent fiction in this field without being forced to make any tangible plans.

December 21, 1945. The problems stated in the first meeting were again restated—mainly because the composition of the group was now different from the first one. The ideas around which to organize reading began to jell; such topics as seeing differences and understanding loyalties in various groups were mentioned and explored a bit. The first consecutive listing of fiction was made. (*Reading Ladders* later grew out of this beginning.) The decision was made to have a "reading unit" on these or similar topics next semester. It was also decided to keep anecdotal records in order to get at further problems around which to organize the reading of literature. Community visits were also planned as another means of sensitizing, but these did not materialize until two years later.

The subsequent interim meetings of the staff were not too productive. The local log reports:

We attempted to look at the social sciences content to determine the problems around which we might center fictional reading to develop sensitivity. We seemed to get along only to the general problem of differences. Some teachers decided to do their intergroup work incidentally.

Those who decided to "stick with the thing" outlined certain general questions, such as how to get breadth and how to deal with sensitivities, in preparation for the next visit of the consultant.

The co-ordinator reported also that these meetings started curriculum planning seriously, but the lack of materials seemed so discouragingly serious that the faculty developed antagonism to the program, and there was a

general drop in the morale because they seemed to be getting nowhere. The staff wanted to develop tangible outlines faster than they could. This feeling occurred early in the national program, when there were as yet few materials to suggest or ways to find them. Later the school staff took a great delight in discovering new sources and new materials.

January 1, 1946. A city-wide meeting was held on whether or not, and how, to conduct a community survey, as most schools thought a more tangible knowledge of the community might reveal "their" human relations problems. Representatives from Tower thought such a survey would be a good idea for "the other schools in town."

February 26, 1946. Because of the drop in morale, the consultant was asked to review the plans for the national Intergroup Education program, stating its importance, suggesting some of the possibilities and the directions the work had taken in other schools, and emphasizing the importance of creative experimentation. Apparently this worked out to be the needed shot in the arm. According to the school co-ordinator, it was the turning point as far as the attitudes of Tower teachers were concerned. More teachers saw what the whole program was about and were willing to "pitch in."

Ninth-grade teachers discussed for half a day their plans for "The People of Our State." Several principles and points were cleared up. They agreed that the study of chronological history should be supplemented by the study of people (we then called it a "population study") and that book learning (there were few books, most of them bad, the staff said) should be supplemented by the use of direct experiences. The following areas were suggested for the content of the course: population shifts, story of architecture, changes in status among people as they moved to and lived in Our City, and the history of local government.

To the consultant, these topics did not look too promising, but it had taken a lot of struggle to get that far, so it was not time for criticism. Questions regarding materials were raised again and some sources from which to secure materials were outlined.

With the English teachers, three areas around which to read were outlined—acceptance, rejection, and loyalty in family, in school, and in community. Some generalizations which might direct this reading were also stated, such as: difference do not mean inferiority; the function of literature should not be to serve as a handmaiden to social studies, but to take on its unique task as a sensitizer; and in reading and discussion, it is important to give opportunities for contrasting and comparing in order to broaden perspective and evaluation.

The school staff agreed to explore further the possibility of using fiction in connection with the course "Our State" and to try to outline roughly the course itself. The consultant promised to send further listings of materials. In order to learn further about pupils' relationships, the staff agreed to give a sociometric test in a few classrooms.

Apparently we had begun to get down to some tangible things in regard to the possible content of the course, topics for reading, and steps in learning about pupils. Had these approaches been suggested at first, the staff would probably have rejected them or, if they had accepted them, would probably have handled them as routine jobs.

In the interim period, teachers held meetings to exchange magazine articles that each was discussing in her own classroom and to talk about their sociograms. The hunt for materials was on, as was "looking at" the pupils.

March 8 to 11, 1946. The literature consultant returned with a tentative draft of "Reading Ladders," which contained fairly extensive additions from other schools to the initial list from Tower. A long session was held on how to focus reading, how to approach a new book with a new purpose in mind, how to discuss books, and how to use compositions for diagnosis of attitudes.

Specific generalizations around which to orient the reading were also formulated such as the basic needs and possibilities of people are alike; all people are members of groups and these groups cut across each other in many different ways in a multi-group society; all people develop certain group loyalties and certain group values within their groups. These concepts were discussed in relation to the school program and to the task of the school, to the function of school activities programs, and to the question of literature. This discussion was followed by a listing of books that had been discovered since the previous meeting. The teachers also agreed to keep anecdotal records on their experiences with the books and with the pupils.

At this point the double-track planning was started; namely, identifying the areas around which to work (which had been done in the previous meeting) and locating the focusing ideas which would direct interpretation, even though the teachers did not at this point identify it as a procedural principle. It is worth noting also that, parallel to each suggestion on curriculum planning, some suggestion for "finding out more about pupils" was made, usually a suggestion that was pretty closely related to the task in hand, because teachers generally were allergic to "just studying pupils' needs," since it only seemed to mean more work without "tangible utility."

May 6 and 7, 1946. Two long planning meetings were held, one with the ninth-grade teachers, outlining the content topics for the unit. Meanwhile,

these had shifted to how work is carried on, how people live, how community institutions function, what shifts have occurred in population groupings, and what the problems of housing, health, and other facilities are. Again we discussed how to combine personal experiences with information from books, how to combine history with present-day problems, and how to correlate fiction reading with the study of history. Principles to guide ways of making these connections were listed.

Each teacher agreed to work out tentative outlines separately. One teacher was to go to summer workshop and shape these different materials into a common curriculum outline. Ways for acquiring additional books were also worked out.

Another long session was held on the further interpretation of the sociograms. Teachers had held interviews on the reasons for choices. It was possible, therefore, not only to identify common value patterns which determined acceptance and rejection among the pupils but also to spot leadership patterns. The data obtained both surprised and shocked the teachers because things came up in the interviews which were contrary to their assumptions about these pupils. For the first time, they began to wonder whether their eyes had been as open on the "problems of human relations" in their school as they had assumed.

Summer, 1946. Two teachers were sent to summer workshop, one to outline the course in local history, and the other to learn to handle the sociometric tests. In addition to carrying out their responsibilities, they were strongly questioned by other teachers on some of their assumptions about their community when they reported on their program in a seminar. This circumstance made a deeper and more lasting impression than had earlier attempts of the consultants to introduce community study. Most of the teachers' first year's work, then, went into getting started, planting some ideas, and learning enough about the pupils to realize that they had human relations problems.

September, 1946. Because of the polio epidemic, three weeks of school-time were devoted to planning for Tower School. Teachers worked in three committees, some planning assemblies and visits, others discussing reports on sociometric studies, still others considering the outline for the local history course which had been brought back from the workshop and making plans for securing diagnostic data on new pupils. A new group of teachers was taking over the ninth-grade work. They did not accept this outline and each proceeded to make one of her own, using the one prepared over the summer as a model. As a group, they wanted a clearer statement of objectives and of the integrating ideas. According to the co-ordinator's report, this set the

stage for clearer realization that more information about the pupils and community was needed before progress could be made in curriculum.

October 19 to 24, 1946. With the ninth-grade teachers, we outlined integrating ideas, planned ways of focusing content, and discussed how to read fiction. While these same things had been under consideration the entire past year, tangible questions were now noted and more pointed plans were made.

The school-wide committee on instruction met to discuss the implications of the sociometric data for curriculum and for the pupils' activities. Out of this later came agreements for further study. The group agreed to find out more about the prestige symbols used, to plot the residence and occupational data obtained for a clearer picture of the economic status, to get data on residence mobility, and to secure some information on social life through diaries. Some of these were to be summarized by the school staff; others, by the project office. The teachers began to be aware of the difficulties in leadership patterns and agreed to do a few more observations. They again suggested something be done to educate the parents.

December 9 and 10, 1946. Some of the data agreed upon during the October visit had been collected and summarized, each piece by an individual teacher or by a pair of teachers. In a long interpretation session, we began to search for the implications of all of the findings. We also compared notes on classroom experiences and, with these as a backlog for analysis, began to re-examine the course outline, its selection of content, and its learning activities. We outlined integrating ideas, planned ways of focusing content, and discussed how to relate fiction reading to the social studies content. While all of this had been discussed during the preceding year, teachers now had more tangible questions and could make more concrete plans.

The handling of fiction still created much difficulty. Teachers reported they were not sure how to discuss books. They "got lost" with so many pupils reading so many different books and did not know how to get the discussion back to the common points. Accordingly, the consultant in literature held several demonstration discussions. Afterwards, criteria for a sequence for discussing books were developed. These sequences were tried out by teachers and later were incorporated in the unit outline. The co-ordinator's log states that from here on the planning meetings were most encouraging. Interest in the data gathering and interpretation increased. People who had before only summarized data became personally involved. The school staff asked for more time for planning meetings, which previously had been difficult to organize. The co-ordinator reported:

It seems to me that now we are ready to go at the job of curriculum revision with a feeling that our basis for doing so is more concrete than when we first started, that planning together and sharing experiences is really valuable and enjoyable. We need to formulate some basis for concepts in human relations on which we can build throughout our junior high-school curriculum and for our entire school program of twelve years. In such a program, the PTA discussion groups seem extremely desirable. We feel very insecure in the matter of leading these.

A study of pupil activities and social data concerning pupils made us question a number of traditions. We were amazed, for example, at the many occasions on which we separated boys and girls throughout our high-school program.

This semester for the first time boys and girls may eat together in the lunchroom. A new plan for school elections will be considered. Some of the boys have voted only for boys and girls for girls.

Between the December and January visits, the assigned pupil diaries were summarized in the intergroup project office and returned to the school.

January 25 and 26, 1947. A start was at last made on PTA. Present staff felt insecure in conducting PTA study sessions in an open manner. A demonstration meeting was held with a large group of the PTA conducted by *one* member of the project staff. This meeting showed how to lead discussion and demonstrated the difficulties of a large group meeting. A later decision to conduct small study sessions grew out of this.

In staff meetings, data gathered up to now were put together, and members were learning how to reinterpret each piece in the light of each other piece. So many intriguing possibilities appeared that the curriculum planning was started in all seriousness. Apparently, the more teachers became engaged in securing and applying the data, the more involved they became in curriculum planning. Getting to work on something tangible stimulated their vision of the larger possibilities and served as the impetus which changed teachers' attitudes toward the whole job. Also, the opportunity to make small changes as they went along and seeing them "pay off," helped. For example, one of the suggestions emerging from the sociometric data was to eliminate the sponsor group competition by setting school-wide standards for fund drives. With no sponsor group quotas set for Red Cross drives, it turned out that more was collected than ever before. Other activities, too, such as the reseating of pupils by sociometric choices and the reading program, were surprisingly successful in stimulating pupils to more and better work. This gave the staff courage and stimulation to continue the program which they so far had pursued "on tolerance only."

March 6 and 7, 1947. The flu epidemic prevented group meetings; so most of the time was spent in considering with the dramatics teacher her plans and progress in planning assemblies and other activities on a school-

vide, rather than a sponsor group, basis; in planning with the principal the PTA study groups; and in planning with the co-ordinator her two-year report and evaluation.

A few hours were spent with the ninth-grade teachers in a group meeting listing data which had been collected and planning ways of pulling these materials together for a summary record. Since this was the last visit of the school year, we discussed briefly the implications of the ninth-grade program for the seventh-grade program. It was agreed that a closer examination of classroom procedures should be emphasized next year in the ninth-grade program.

Summer, 1947. Two people again were sent to the workshop to re-outline the course so as to incorporate more clearly the integrating ideas and suggestions related to using fiction for sensitizing.

September, 1947. In September the school staff held three weekly meetings on plans for getting data, plans for securing films, and on book orders. Also, an agenda was worked out for the next visit of the consultant.

October, 1947. The consultant spent two days in the school. One day was spent in summarizing data which had been gathered on the new group of pupils according to plans made in September staff meetings.

The second day went to examining classroom procedures. According to previous agreement, teachers had kept folders of pupil papers and logs of their classroom procedures. These materials were analyzed and discussed in detail in order to discover what was holding things up at the classroom end. Several things were discovered. For each new learning which involved new skills, such as interviewing and writing personal reactions, a long time for warming up was needed than the teachers had allowed. Whenever new content was explored, clearer opportunities were needed for contrasting and comparing, if pupils were to catch on to new ideas. It seemed necessary, also, to use more frequent writing assignments in order to provide continual practice in expression, to provide a more frequent check on what pupils do or do not understand, and in order to diagnose concretely what they need to learn next. (Some papers revealed, after a prolonged study of immigration, that the pupils had very unrealistic notions about how an immigrant may fare in this country.)

Notes on the structure of the unit and the classroom procedures followed by the four teachers were compared, since each implemented the course outline in a different way. All reported difficulty at certain points: how to manage committees, how to develop a sufficient history background, and how to provide a framework within which the individual work of pupils gets

its full meaning. Teachers particularly had difficulty in connecting the first hand experience and stories about families with the general ideas.

The teaching staff agreed to keep further logs and folders in order to examine these difficult spots more carefully and make better plans for overcoming them. The consultant was to analyze these before the next visit.

Since the work became quite voluminous, a rotation system was set up, through which some teachers revised the units already taught that year and others made plans for the units still to be taught. By the end of the year the whole course was in fairly good shape as a result.

After the October visit, several other activities took place. Plans were also made for grade-wide, instead of sponsor-group-wide, committees for social programs and for spreading leadership opportunities. These activities had formerly been in the hands of a few popular pupils. This step set the stage for the later reconsideration of the whole pattern of student government, its method of election, and its functioning.

November, 1947. The use of the whole grade sociogram had raised several technical questions. Accordingly, the specialist in sociometric techniques held a two-day series of training sessions on how to plot and interpret sociograms, how to compare data from several sociograms, and how to conduct follow-up studies. Such questions as how can a teacher tell if her sociogram shows an unhealthy group and school situation, how can one go about finding out what motivations are revealed in the choices, and how should one make up the most compatible home-room groups were discussed.

During November, the community study finally got started. Several teachers took a trip around the community noting the physical quality of the various neighborhoods. Interviews, the procedures for which had been discussed and planned a year earlier, were finally mapped out. An order for films was also put together.

December 12, 1947. Apparently, frustration had set in again, this time because of confusion in classroom techniques, especially on the part of the new teachers who had joined last fall. Teachers complained that, with so many committees and so much individual work, they did not know how to keep pupils busy. Discussions bogged down. There were not enough materials.

It was difficult to implement the many "fine ideas" in the curriculum outline through appropriate classroom practices, especially as far as the sensitizing experiences were concerned. Consequently, during this visit, the logs and pupil papers were examined again for what they might reveal

about deficiencies in classroom procedures. From this analysis the following difficulties were noted: (1) The reading of fiction followed the social studies program in place of being simultaneous; (2) There was not enough relationship between the ideas discussed in class and the assignments of individual work; (3) Better methods were needed through which to make a transition from the specific type of discussion into more general questions. Ways were also needed by which to make transitions from individual assignments to general classroom assignments, such as using approximately the points that came up in connection with the stories about their own families moving to Our State as bases for a textbook assignment.

To help with these problems, the consultant made systematic suggestions on three topics: (1) What is the sequence in concept building and in information and what kinds of discussion are good for each? (2) What is the sequence in building sensitizing experiences? (3) What is the sequence in developing writing assignments? These points were recorded for school-staff reference. (This information had been repeated several times over a period of a year and a half. Some of the first meetings in 1946 began with discussion of these topics.)

During January, the staff worked on outlining the last unit in the course which had not yet been systematically outlined. A compilation was made of the classroom sequence which teachers had tested out in accordance with the suggestions made during the December visit. These sequences were later integrated into the unit outlines. The first two units were also re-appraised for any unevenness in the general emphasis.

February 23 and 24, 1948. New, detailed logs were submitted and carefully examined. This was the first time that all teachers submitted them and that critical comments on individual logs had been gone over in individual conferences. Suggestions were also made for ways to summarize diaries in order to make them more useful. Additions to and modifications of all three units of the course were made.

This was the last visit of the school year. But since the school staff had by now learned the ways of working on its own, many activities continued—community visits for the pupils were planned and carried out. These visits were highly successful and resulted in exciting discussions and writing. Teachers organized their samples of logs and pupil papers and reported their experimentation in detail in group meetings. All of the persons engaged in specific aspects of work wrote some report on it: the PTA discussion groups, sociometric data and activities based on them, and a summary of community observations and interviews. The co-ordinator

together with the group then compiled a collective report to the Board of Education and to the project office and evaluated the work of three years. Two more teachers were sent to the 1948 summer workshop to compile a handbook for the course and to explain how it was planned, so that the outline might be useful to other schools in the city.

The tangible outcomes of this school's program may be summarized as follows:

1. An outline of a course in local history for ninth grade, with detailed suggestions on how to diagnose pupil needs, how to use sensitizing materials, and how to set up discussion questions and with ample listings of source materials, was formulated.
2. Revision of the pupil activities program to provide for greater cohesion of all groups in school and for a richer pupil association pattern was accomplished.
3. A fair start was made on revising the pattern of student government.
4. Reorganization of the seventh-grade orientation unit and a few ideas on how to go about revising the rest of the program in the seventh and eighth grades took place.
5. Fairly clear methods of how to use the grade-wide planning meetings for further plans and how to induct new teachers into the methods of using program outlines were worked out.

Besides these tangible outcomes, there were many other learnings which had a decided influence in the life of the school. These the co-ordinator summarized as by-products, listing them as follows:

1. There is more emphasis on the individual pupil and a greater understanding of his needs, as shown by the use of teacher conferences to plan procedures after learning the results of the Binet tests; by concern over adjustment of pupils in their group; by the increased number of parent-teacher conferences asked for; and by recording of more significant anecdotal data on the cumulative records.
2. There is a realization of the value of co-operative teacher planning and greater willingness to give time to it. For example, free periods in school, previously guarded for individual jobs, were increasingly used for group planning. Decisions, which before seemed more comfortable if made by individuals, now were brought up for group consideration. Willingness grew also to abide by group decision.
3. There is greater sensitivity to the feelings of others. Teachers began to notice inadvertent slips in their own behavior; pupils became aware of the situations in their own relationships that might have human relations consequences.
4. There is more awareness of the importance of knowledge of the community and of the value of such knowledge in good curriculum planning.
5. Teachers are more willing to experiment. Many of them throughout the school used sociometry, and everyone helped with the revision of the activity patterns that these data revealed to be necessary. The regrouping of incoming "7 B's" was undertaken, even though this regrouping was contrary to all emotionalized tradition. The cumulative records were studied and compared with sociometric

findings. Many teachers throughout the school experimented with the use of literature for the development of social sensitivity and discovered that pupils were reading more and had more meaningful discussions. A good many ways were developed for using community resources, such as trips to housing projects and trips to other schools—all of which were entirely new activities for this school.

6. There is a willingness to evaluate and to change many accepted school traditions, such as ways of seating in lunchrooms, election of student body officers, playground practices, *etc.*

The program is still continuing. This past fall the staff wanted to start on revising the courses in old world backgrounds and in health, maintaining that they "could not continue to teach these the old way." They had to be dissuaded from undertaking more than they could do in one year. The ninth-grade course has since been presented to other schools in the city.

PLANNING THE COURSE IN AMERICAN CULTURE

The planning of the course in American culture occupied a period of over three years and is still going on. At the beginning, it was taught by two teachers to one class of pupils in one high school; at the end of the three years, it was being taught by ten teachers in three schools.

During this period, the selection and organization of content were revised several times; learning activities, such as discussion methods, were being developed and experimented with in classrooms; and a gradual transition was

TEACHERS ANALYZE CURRICULUM CONCEPTS



being made from merely paralleling history and literature to an integrated development of common ideas through supplementary content and experiences.

First, it is worth while to see how the teachers became involved. The first two planning "teams" were started partly at the suggestion of the school's curriculum director, partly because the teachers themselves thought they "might be interested in teaching the new course." A "team" consisted of one history and one English teacher who were to teach the same pupils and always to begin work together. Additional teams were added in much the same fashion, but were selected so that at least one instructional team and one experimental class would be established in each of several high schools. With only a few exceptions, each new teacher was able to work in the planning group at least half a year before he actually began teaching the course. In the third year of the project, so many pupils were interested in taking the course that the addition of new teachers was accelerated perhaps beyond what was wise, so that several teachers joined the planning groups more at the request of their principal or the local intergroup co-ordinator than at their own preference.

It is often assumed that only experienced curriculum planners can produce curriculum. In this case, some of the ten teachers involved in the project over the three years were not experienced in curriculum planning, although all were experienced teachers. One teacher who came in during the second year had been teaching American history, but, he once remarked, taught it primarily "to fill out my program, since coaching is what I have really been interested in." Eight months later, this same teacher remarked, "If I learn as much during the next five years as I have since February, I am really going to enjoy teaching." He, for example, had not participated before in planning a course through group conferences with other teachers.

The gradual involvement of teachers enabled them to learn from each other. Teachers who were just beginning to teach the course could profit from the experiences of those who had been "through the mill" for a year, but the learning was two-way. Teachers who had taught the course once often found themselves more in command of the content materials necessary for it than the new members of the group, but were still in a position to learn a great deal about classroom methods and teaching activities from the newer members. A second benefit was that, since each team was at a different point in teaching, many ideas were being aired at the same time and the thinking of the group was stimulated. Although it was at times frustrating to have to face many different problems and new proposals at each meeting, consideration of them prevented the group from bogging down and becoming satisfied with any one method of teaching or a fixed arrangement of content. Also, the members

of the committee represented a wide range of viewpoints, not only about methods of teaching, but also in their understanding of pupils, of their own experiences with and attitudes toward American culture, of their various backgrounds of special competence in their subject areas, and of their convictions about how pupils learn. The committee thus contained within itself a sufficient range of knowledge, competence, and opinions to supply in an intrinsic way the criticisms, checks, and balances necessary to make a new course at once effective, well-rounded, and adequate to cover the various essentials of the school program. For example, the teacher who was particularly well versed in historical content was kept from substituting historical facts for adequate teaching methods by another teacher who may have known less history, but was more skillful in his ways of introducing it into learning activities.

Finally, the veteran members of the group developed a pattern of work which shortened for newer members the period required for certain learnings. The practice of visiting each other's classrooms is a case in point. There are several values involved in teachers visiting each other's classes to observe or participate: they become more familiar with each other's procedures; they have an opportunity to see pupils performing in a greater range of situations; they sometimes learn methods and instructional skills from each other; they are in a far better position to supplement each other's work. Yet, there is nothing that many teachers dislike more than the idea of having another teacher visit their classes while they are teaching.

In this particular project, there was at the beginning little inclination to visit back and forth and to share classroom procedures. Toward the end of the first year, teachers increasingly began to discuss with each other specifically what they did, and the teams in a school began to visit back and forth more freely. "Observing the teacher" was de-emphasized since the focus of interest had shifted to "observing the pupils." There was a certain advantage in each member of the team being in a different subject area: an English teacher felt easier about having her teammate who was not an English specialist visit her than she would have felt about an English teacher. Also, classroom visits by consultants had set a pattern of visiting; they were followed by individual conferences, and things that happened in classes began to be referred to in a casual and relaxed way in these conferences as well as in the committee meetings. As new teachers joined the committee, they accepted as natural this pattern of reporting on class visits and of describing their own classroom procedures in conference. The later teams accepted sooner and apparently more easily than the earlier teams the two practices of visiting each other's classes and talking about each other's way of working.

The diverse competences and viewpoints among the teachers were best used by a regular alternation of whole-group meetings with individual or school-team conferences. These diversities were also dealt with by alternating meetings at which the consultants were present with meetings held by themselves. This multiple planning track had several distinct advantages. The group meetings were free to consider common problems only; matters of concern to only one or a few individuals could be dealt with elsewhere. Individual conferences could go into matters that would have threatened the individual had they been brought up in the group context. These individual conferences also provided the consultants with information which enabled them to formulate problems for whole-group consideration.

The group sessions were devoted to those aspects of planning best accomplished by pooling experience and ideas; namely, to selecting and organizing content, criticizing and improving learning activities, exchanging materials, and establishing the general scope of the course as well as its principles and purposes.

During the first year, group meetings were devoted to deciding what organization of content units to use, in what sequence they should be taught, and what materials might be helpful. Although these teachers accepted the reorganization of content as a planning job, individually and as a group, it was hard for them to formulate the particular understandings and attitudes they wanted to teach, to select appropriate content and methods, and to work out units. Most of them had had no previous experience in using a focal idea as the starting point in curriculum planning.

The history teachers were used to organizing by chronological sequence or by topics; the English teachers organized content according to forms of literature or types of language arts skills. It was difficult for them, therefore, to identify those ideas which were of greatest significance in understanding American culture and at the same time begin to use them for content organization to the extent at least of identifying the major areas around which to build units.

Once the major content units—The People of America, Rights, Economics Patterns, America and World Peace—had been decided, the content of each unit needed refining. Group meetings were now concerned with such questions as "How can we sample all the possible content on rights in order to cover the important concepts?" Although the method of content sampling had been taken up almost at the beginning in connection with deciding which groups of American people to study, most members of the group did not comprehend the principles of sampling as a method until the third year. When the question

rose in connection with the "Rights" unit, one entire meeting was spent comparing different methods of sampling the content for teaching rights and developing criteria for sampling a variety of content for a variety of purposes.

At that time some teachers still felt compelled in the unit on "Rights" to deal with everything in American history that had to do with rights of American people or, in the unit on "America and World Peace," to cover every incident in our relationship with other countries, irrespective of whether these details were pertinent to the central ideas and purposes they had worked out. They seemed to resist the relinquishing of particular illustrations and details which, if used, would have duplicated each other in a particular sampling of content. In other words, they persisted in cherishing content details for themselves and not for what pupils might learn through them.

In addition, no one wanted to adopt anyone else's particular selection of content. It took some time for the group to make a distinction between a fixed blueprint and drawing a basis for sampling which everyone in the group could accept, which at the same time would leave each teacher free to choose his own particular content for that sampling.

During the second year, and particularly during the third year, the emphasis shifted to improving learning activities and classroom methods, although problems of organizing content were still present. By this time, all the units had been taught at least once, some twice.

Such problems as "What kind of questions and what pattern of discussion would be most effective for pooling ideas related to this content?" began to come up in group meetings. Early in the teaching of the course, it had become apparent to most of the teachers that their usual instructional methods weren't going to work with the new approach and new ideas. The teacher, for example, who had always begun his class with a rather abstract declaration of the ideas that his pupils were to absorb, found that he could not employ this method if he hoped to build independent ways of thinking and sensitivities toward new ideas. Teachers found that discussion procedures unlike any they had ever employed were required in order for several committees of pupils to pool their findings with the purpose of deriving general concepts from them.

The scrutinizing and planning of learning activities had been a stumbling block for other reasons also. Some teachers were reluctant to share with others the particular sequence of learning activities that they had worked out themselves or they feared criticism by consultants and the others if they made available descriptions or observations of what they did. Therefore, questions pertaining to teaching technique and learning sequence at first were taken up with individual teams only. Some members of the group made such state-

ments as, "Well, need we bother with how to teach that? After all, any good teacher will know how to handle this content."

In most cases, probably, this reluctance to share classroom processes was not so much defensiveness as simply a lack of awareness of the variety of learning activities possible and of the difference that appropriate organization and sequence of learning activities can make in what is learned.

The teachers who were most logical in thinking through a series of ideas, for example, frequently assumed that this same sequence was the best way to present the content to pupils, completely ignoring the fact that they were formulating it at the end of a learning process, while pupils were at the beginning. It was difficult for them to see that, by constructing a psychological sequence for learning and by taking into account where pupils were at the moment in their understandings, they would aid rather than prevent the emergence of a logical structure of ideas in pupils' minds. In planning sensitizing experiences, these teachers had a tendency to depend on the impact of some one strong experience, such as a story about flagrant discrimination, and failed to provide for the follow-up needed to clear up any misinterpretations.

Gradually, these group sessions fell into a regular pattern. In each session, one person gave a descriptive report on each point under discussion, such as describing a particular method of classroom discussion. Others in the group supplemented the report by contributing comparable or contrasting experiences on the same point. Finally, the basic principles and generalizations which represented the "basis for operation" were stated. Thus, for example, one teacher might describe how he had started the unit on "Peoples of America" with a story about an immigrant, another told of using *Ballad for Americans*, and a third described how he had asked each pupil to tell something about his family. The group was thus able to see that, although the medium used in each case was different, the common characteristic of all three was to supply an emotional component, which was necessary in order for pupils' feelings and interests to become involved. Apparently, it was possible to discuss classroom methods effectively only after pressing problems of content had been sufficiently cleared up and after each teacher had pooled classroom experiences.

At the end of the second year, the group constituted itself into a standing committee with a chairman, which met together whether or not consultants were present. The group was now able to plan a whole sequence of work by systematically scheduling discussions of the problems that might come up during the year, including setting up routines for keeping and exchanging records of materials. Certain events speeded this development. Three group members had attended workshops two different summers, and each had

worked on the writing of some one unit which utilized a number of persons' ideas and previous plans. They had thus become aware of the consecutive problems that are met in planning curriculum. But probably the most important factor in the establishment of a standing committee was that during the second summer all members of the committee had held half-day working sessions for two weeks without the consultants. They had exchanged ideas on learning sequences, compared materials, and written one unit incorporating previously tried objectives, content, and learning sequences. This experience also allowed for planning without the pressure of teaching at the same time and was long enough to lead to the firm establishment of group thinking and co-operation as an effective working method.

Distinguishing the unique function of each of the two subject-areas included in the course proved to be a recurring difficulty. From the beginning it had been agreed to plan the course so that neither subject could become the handmaiden of the other, which has so often occurred in so-called "correlation" courses. It had been agreed, for example, that history would supply background information and concepts for each focal idea, while literature would supply the emotional impact and realistic details toward the end of sensitizing. As units were formulated, the unique functions of each subject were carefully pointed up again in relation to the specific content and purposes of the units. In planning learning activities, the English and social science teachers often contributed independently learnings most useful for their purposes, which suggestions were then organized into a common sequence. However, as the two teachers began teaching as a team, overlapping and gaps soon appeared, some no doubt because of difficulties in communicating frequently enough to each other what happened in each class from day to day.

The social studies teachers, for example, began using fiction selections for their dramatic and sensitizing effect when introducing new ideas, even though the literature teachers presumably used the same stories for the same purpose. English teachers, in turn, spent time on the background and setting for their stories, which could have been done in social studies classes.

Sometimes, the assumption of what a subject traditionally covered obscured what the subject could best do in relation to the new course. Thus the teachers, who had before always read the documents of liberty as a literature assignment, found it hard to turn their thinking toward the selection of fiction to illustrate such things as how people feel who are deprived of their rights. They, therefore, found themselves duplicating some of the content of the social studies sequence, while neglecting at the same time to extend the awareness of pupils in ways that are most unique and appropriate for literature. Thus, with each

new unit and each new level of perception in content or learning activities. It was necessary to make this differentiation anew.

The group also went through definite waves of enthusiasm and discouragement. Apparently, hearing the previous teams say how they felt did not help new teams forestall the same reactions. Sometimes there was too much to cover; sometimes, too little. There was always difficulty in getting enough books. There were worries about adequately covering basic essentials, which only subsided after several pupils who had finished this course performed well on standard tests. Some discouragement was related to sessions at which a new idea was introduced or a new problem raised, such as how to work out discussion patterns. Such sessions seemed to engender, simultaneously, enthusiasm and discouragement over having to do one more new thing in an apparently endless chain of new things to do.

Many of these difficulties, of course, stemmed from unfamiliarity either with the particular methods employed in planning or with group methods in general. For example, it was often impossible at the beginning to pick out any one person's outline for critical analysis without someone in the group feeling that his particular contribution was no good, since it was not immediately used. It took some time to learn that a sample analysis of one person's work can help everyone see how to proceed in his next steps.

Some of the low spots in morale were related to the difficulty in getting pupils to understand what the course was for, why it was different from other courses, and in assuring them that it would still provide essentials. In spots, pupils proved to be much more resistant than the teachers to new content, new ways of working, and new materials. They would protest that the study of literature was including too much history, while in history they weren't learning dates. However, by the end of the first year, every teacher was getting approving comments about the course from pupils.

Throughout the project, the teachers usually planned the next unit and examined the classroom procedures pertinent to it while teaching the preceding one. This circumstance was a source of much pressure and harassment for the teachers, especially since class work in the new course was heavier than in usual courses and involved reading more books and pupil papers and spending more time on planning. The ill effects of this pressure were counteracted, however, by concurrent feelings of gratification from their success with pupils and from the excitement that accompanies experimentation. As one teacher put it, after a most strenuous semester, "I have never worked so hard or so much or so long. I feel like I have been teaching ten classes for every two—but I've never had so much fun."

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[Continued from page IV.]

EXHIBIT HALL
3:30-3:30 P. M.**Exhibits of school materials, equipment, and supplies.****VESPER SERVICE****GENERAL
SESSION**
Sunday
February 27
Old Room
8:00 P. M.**Presiding:** *Clarence E. Blume*, Principal, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.**Music:** Girls' Choir, Oak Park Township High School, Oak Park, Illinois.*Edna Ruth Wood*, Director.**Scripture Reading****and Prayer:** *Dr. J. Lawrence Roberts*, Pastor, Coppin A.M.E. church, Chicago.**Music:** *A Capella* Choir, Proviso Township High School, Maywood, Illinois.*Robert A. Davis*, Director.**Address:** *Clark G. Kuebler*, President, Ripon College, Ripon, Wisconsin.**Benediction:** Combined choirs of the Oak Park Township High School and the Proviso Township High School.**RECEPTION**
Sunday
February 27
Forentine
Room
15-5:15 P. M.**Hosts:** National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Chicago Principals' Club, Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association, Private Schools Association of the Central States.*James E. Blue*, Principal, West Senior High School, Rockford, Illinois, official host and Chairman in charge of arrangements.**ALL INVITED. COME AND GET ACQUAINTED.****GENERAL
SESSION**
Sunday
February 27
Old Room
8:00 P. M.**Presiding:** *W. E. Buckey*, Principal, Fairmont Senior High School, Fairmont, West Virginia; First Vice President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.**Music:** "MUSIC AND THE AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOL."

Choir and Symphony Orchestra, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois.

Sadie Rafferty, Instructor and Director of Choir.*Traugott Rohner*, Instructor and Director of Orchestra.**GENERAL
SESSION**
Sunday
February 28
Old Room
8:30 A. M.**Presiding:** *Clarence E. Blume* Principal, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.**Invocation:** *The Right Reverend Monsignor George J. Casey*, P.A., J.C.D., Vicar General of the Archdiocese of Chicago.**Music:** Choir, Roosevelt High School, Chicago, Illinois.*John P. Hamilton*, Conductor.

Addresses: THE STATE'S RESPONSIBILITY TO ITS YOUTH.

The Hon. Luther W. Youngdahl, Governor, State of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota.

LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION FOR YOUTH.

Benjamin C. Willis, Superintendent of Schools, Yonkers, New York; Chairman, Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, United States Office of Education.

Exhibit Hall
8:30 A.M.-
6:00 P.M.

Exhibits of school materials, equipment, and supplies.

Monday
February 28
2:15-4:15 P.M.

Discussion groups on these topics:

- Group I* HOW CAN WE DEVELOP AN EFFECTIVE PROGRAM OF EDUCATION FOR LIFE ADJUSTMENT?
- Group II* HOW MAY PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP BE OBTAINED FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?
- Group III* WHAT TERMINAL PROGRAMS SHOULD THE JUNIOR COLLEGE OFFER?
- Group IV* HOW SHOULD THE ADMINISTRATIVE ISSUES OF THE SIX-YEAR SCHOOL BE RESOLVED?
- Group V* WHAT ARE GOOD TECHNIQUES IN ACHIEVING DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION?
- Group VI* WHAT KINDS OF PROGRAMS OF EDUCATION DO STATE PRINCIPALS ASSOCIATIONS HAVE?
- Group VII* HOW CAN YOUTH BE EDUCATED FOR HOME AND FAMILY LIFE?
- Group VIII* WHAT PROGRAMS FOR EXCEPTIONAL YOUTH?
 - 1. The Physically Handicapped.
 - 2. The Gifted.
 - *3. The Slow Learner.
- Group IX* HOW MAY MAXIMUM USE OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS BE OBTAINED?
- Group X* WHAT IS EFFECTIVE ADMINISTRATION OF PUPIL ACTIVITY FINANCES?
- Group XI* DO OUR MARKING AND PROMOTION POLICIES AND PRACTICES NEED RE-EVALUATION?
- Group XII* HOW CAN WE ADMINISTER IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS THROUGH WORKSHOPS?
- Group XIII* HOW SHOULD ADMINISTRATORS DEAL WITH FRATERNITIES AND SORORITIES?
- Group XIV* WHAT FEDERAL AID AND LEGISLATION IS NECESSARY FOR AN ADEQUATE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROGRAM?

* Scheduled for Tuesday afternoon, March 1, Group II.

INTERNATIONAL EVENING

Presiding: *Clarence E. Blume*, Principal, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Music: Choir, Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, Illinois.
Robert Koyl, Director.

Addresses: EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING.

Erling Christophersen, Cultural Attaché, Norwegian Embassy, Washington, D. C.

A BRITISH TEACHER VIEWS THE AMERICAN SCHOOL.

Mrs. Winifred MacVicar, Washington Junior High School, Monitowoc, Wisconsin; Exchange Teacher from London, Eng.

Presiding: *Clarence E. Blume*, Principal, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Invocation: *The Reverend Robert G. Andrus*, Presbyterian Church, Lake Forest, Illinois.

Music: Choir and Glee Clubs, Lake Forest Academy, Lake Forest, Illinois.

Sherwood Rollins, Jr., Director.

Addresses: SHOULD THE MODERN SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM BE EXPERIENCE CENTERED?

Harold Alberty, Professor of Education, College of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

CURRICULUM PATTERNS FOR THE MODERN SECONDARY SCHOOL.

Gordon N. Mackenzie, Head, Department of Curriculum and Teaching, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York.

REMOVING BARRIERS TO THE NEW CURRICULUM—THE MICHIGAN PROGRAM.

G. Robert Koopman, Associate Superintendent, State Department of Public Instruction, Lansing, Michigan.

Exhibits of school materials, equipment, and supplies.

GENERAL
SESSION

Monday
February 28
Old Room
8:00 P.M.

GENERAL
SESSION
Tuesday
March 1
Old Room
10 A.M.

Exhibit Hall
10 A.M.-
10 P.M.

Tuesday**March 1****2:15-4:15 P.M.****Discussion groups on these topics:**

- Group I* **How CAN THE EXPERIENCE-CENTERED CURRICULUM BE DEVELOPED?**
- Group II* **WHAT PROGRAMS FOR EXCEPTIONAL YOUTH?**
 1. The Slow Learner.
 *2. The Physically Handicapped.
 *3. The Gifted.
- Group III* **How CAN CONSUMER EDUCATION IMPROVE OUR INSTRUCTION PROGRAM?**
- Group IV* **WHAT SPIRITUAL VALUES SHOULD BE INCLUDED IN THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROGRAM?**
- Group V* **WHAT IS A FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?**
- Group VI* **WHAT ARE THE CURRENT TRENDS IN JUNIOR COLLEGE EDUCATION?**
- Group VII* **How CAN WE DEVELOP EFFECTIVE CITIZENSHIP THROUGH THE STUDENT COUNCIL?**
- Group VIII* **WHAT DEVICES FOR RECOGNIZING AND ENCOURAGING STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT?**
- Group IX* **WHAT ARE THE CURRENT TRENDS IN GUIDANCE SERVICES FOR MODERN YOUTH?**
- Group X* **How SATISFACTORY ARE CURRENT POLICIES AND PRACTICES FOR COLLEGE ADMISSION?**
- Group XI* **How CAN WE MEET THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL?**
- Group XII* **WHAT ARE ACCEPTABLE STANDARDS FOR INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS?**
- Group XIII* **WHAT IS A GOOD PROGRAM OF PUBLIC RELATIONS FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?**
- Group XIV* **WHAT ARE THE TRENDS IN PLANNING AND CONSTRUCTING JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND PLANTS?**

* Scheduled for Monday afternoon, February 28, Group VIII.

BUSINESS MEETING FOR MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Presiding: *Clarence E. Blume*, Principal, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Presiding: *Clarence E. Blume*, Principal, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

UNITED NATIONS FOLK FESTIVAL
Barrington High School, Barrington, Illinois.
Truman L. Chiles, Director.

Presiding: *Clarence E. Blume*, Principal, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Invocation: Rabbi Jacob Weinstein, K. A. M. Temple, Chicago, Illinois.
Music: Ensemble, Glen Ellyn—Lombard (Glenbard) Township High School, Glen Ellyn, Illinois, *Raymond N. Carr*, Director.

Presentation: Presentation of New President and Officers.

Address: THE U IN EDUCATION.

Kenneth McFarland, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka, Kansas, guest Lecturer for *Reader's Digest*.

Eleven tours to secondary schools in the Chicago area.

Exhibits of school materials, equipment, and supplies.

LOCAL CONVENTION COMMITTEE

E. R. Siefert, Supt., Proviso Township High School, Maywood; *Chairman*.
James E. Blue, Prin., West Senior High School, Rockford.

E. Francis Bowditch, Hdmr., Lake Forest Academy, Lake Forest.

Matthew L. Fitzgerald, Prin., Steinmetz High School, Chicago.

Harold H. Metcalf, Supt., Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights.

Lloyd S. Michael, Supt., Evanston Township Schools, and Prin., Evanston Township High School, Evanston.

Warren C. Seyfert, Dir., Laboratory School, University of Chicago, Chicago.

Varian M. Shea, Prin., Von Steuben High School, Chicago.

Rev. Gordon F. Walter, O. P., Prin., Fenwick High School, Oak Park.

Eugene Youngert, Supt., Oak Park Township High School, Oak Park.

National Contests for Schools

National Contest Committee¹ of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

THE National Contest Committee has again considered the announced national school contests by firms, organizations, and institutions outside the organized educational agencies. The following national contests have the approval of the Committee and are suggested to schools as the only national contests in which they should participate during the school year 1948-49.

NATIONAL CONTESTS FOR 1948-49

<i>Sponsoring Agency</i>	<i>National Contest Approved</i>
ART CONTESTS	
American Automobile Association, 17th Street and Pennsylvania Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C.	Traffic Safety Poster Contest
American Legion Auxiliary, 777 N. Meridian Street, Indianapolis, Indiana	Poppy Poster Contest
Conde Nast Publications, Inc., 420 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y.	Art Contest
Eastman Kodak Company, 343 State Street, Rochester 4, New York	Photographic Contest
Fisher Body Division, General Motors Corporation, Detroit 2, Michigan	Craftsman's Guild
Kansas City Art Institute, Kansas City 2, Missouri	Art Contest
National Livestock and Meat Board, 407 S. Dearborn Street, Chicago 5, Illinois	Poster Contest
National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Inc., Suite 105, 11 S. LaSalle Street, Chicago 3, Illinois	Design for Easter Seal
National Wildlife Federation, 20 Spruce Street, Boston 8, Massachusetts	Poster Contest
ESSAY CONTESTS	
Advertising Federation of America, 330 W. 42nd Street, New York 18, N. Y.	Essay Contest
American Association for the United Nations, Inc., 45 E. 65th Street, New York 21, N.Y.	Essay Contest
American Society for Friendship with Switzerland, 8 W. 40th Street, New York 8, New York	Essay Contest
Atlantic Monthly, 8 Arlington Street, Boston 16, Massachusetts	Essay, Story, and Poetry Contests

¹ The National Contest Committee: G. A. Manning, Principal, High School, Muskegon, Michigan, *Chairman*; Fred L. Biester, Superintendent, Glen Ford Township High School, Glenn Ellyn, Illinois; and John M. French, Principal, High School, LaPorte, Indiana

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| National Employ the Physically Handicapped Week, U.S. Dept. of Labor, Washington 25, D.C. | Essay Contest |
| National Federation of Sales Executives, 49th and Lexington, New York, N.Y. | Essay Contest |
| National Graphic Arts Association, 719 15th Street, N.W., Washington 5, D. C. | Essay Contest |
| National Tuberculosis Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N.Y. | Essay Contest |
| Propeller Club of the U.S. Port of New Orleans, Room 304, Association of Commerce Building, New Orleans 5, La. | Essay Contest |
| Veterans of Foreign Wars, Ladies Auxiliary, 406 W. 34th Street, Kansas City 2, Missouri | Essay Contest |

FORENSIC CONTEST

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| Knights of Pythias, 1054 Midland Bank Building, Minneapolis, Minn. | Oratorical Contest |
| National Americanism Committee of the American Legion, 777 N. Meridian Street, Indianapolis, Indiana | Oratorical Contest |
| National Forensic League, Ripon, Wis. | Forensic Contest (excluding debate) |
| United States Junior Chamber of Commerce, Akdar Building, Tulsa, Oklahoma | Radio Speech Contest |

SCHOLARSHIPS

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| Bausch and Lomb Optical Company, 635 St. Paul Street, Rochester 2, New York | Scholarships |
| Elks National Foundation Trustees, 16 Court Street, Boston 8, Mass. | Scholarships |
| New England Textile Foundation, 68 S. Main Street, Providence 3, R.I. | Scholarships |
| Scholarship Board of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. | National Honor Society Scholarships |
| Science Service, 1719 N Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. | Science Talent Search |
| Westinghouse Educational Foundation, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh 13, Pa. | Scholarships |

MISCELLANEOUS

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| American Association of Teachers of French, Southwestern, Memphis 12, Tenn. | French Examination |
| National Association for Promotion of Study of Latin, Elizabeth, N.J. | Latin Examination |
| National Society of Daughters of the American Revolution, 17th and D Streets, N.W., Washington, D.C. | Good Citizenship Pilgrimage |
| Quiz Kids Scholarship Committee, 8 S. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois | Best Teacher Selection |
| Scholastic Magazine, Inc., 220 E. 42nd Street, New York 17, N. Y. | Art, Literature, and Music Contests |

News Notes

PROMPT ACTION ON FEDERAL AID—Declaring that "our schools, in many localities, are utterly inadequate," the President, in his State-of-the-Union Message, January 5, 1949, urged "prompt Federal financial aid to the states to help them operate and maintain their school systems." "It is...shocking," he said, "that millions of our children are not receiving a good education. Millions of them are in over-crowded, obsolete buildings. We are short of teachers, because teachers' salaries are too low to attract new teachers, or to hold the ones we have. All these school problems will become much more acute as a result of the tremendous increase in the enrollment in our elementary schools in the next few years. I cannot repeat too strongly," he concluded, "my desire for prompt Federal financial aid to the states to help them operate and maintain their school systems." At another point in his message, the President stressed the importance of "extending modern conveniences and services to our farms In considering legislation relating . . . to education . . . special attention should be given to rural problems." It may be inferred that the President had in mind legislation which will provide Federal aid to the states in proportion to need. . . . The President said further that "the governmental agency which now administers the programs of health, education, and social security should be given full departmental status."

S 246, authorizing \$300,000,000 in Federal aid without Federal control to assist the states in financing their public school systems, was introduced in the Senate, January 6, 1949. Co-sponsors of the bill include: Senators Thomas (U.), Hill (Ala.), Murray (Mont.), Neely (W. Va.), Chavez (N. Mex.), Pepper (Fla.), Ellender (La.) McGrath (R. I.), Long (La.)—all Democrats; Senators Taft (O.), Tobey (N. H.), Aiken (Vt.), Smith (N. J.), and Ives (N. Y.)—all Republicans.

S 246 is the same as S 472 passed by the Senate last April by a vote of 58-22. (1) The authorization is for \$300,000,000 per year. (2) Federal control of educational policies is explicitly prohibited. (3) The bill is essentially an equalization measure, with largest amounts of the Federal funds apportioned to the neediest states. (4) No state will receive less than \$5 per child 5 to 17 years old inclusive. (5) Fair and equitable treatment for separate schools maintained for separate minority racial groups is provided. (6) The states may use the funds according to the provisions of state constitutions and state laws governing the use of state and local school dollars for current operating purposes.

TEACHING OFFERS GREATEST OPPORTUNITY—The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education has available, without charge, reprints of an article, "Teaching Offers Greatest Opportunity" from the NEA Journal for October, 1948. Much of the information in the article is designed as an aid for teacher recruitment. It reviews the findings and recommendations of the 1948 School for Executives which the Association held at Estes Park, Colo. Requests

should be addressed to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, State Teachers College, Oneonta, New York.

NEA's NEW RADIO SERVICE—The Division of Press and Radio Relations of the National Education Association announces a new radio service for the state and local associations of the nation. This service will consist of scripts, promotion material, and transcriptions to be made available to state and local groups who wish to use them. The NEA is enlisting the co-operation of the associations in determining what types of script will be most suitable for use on local radio stations. Literature describing the service and its aims is available. As soon as the NEA knows local needs, an attempt will be made to meet them. It is hoped that this service will prove helpful to state and local associations in presenting facts on educational problems to the public clearly and accurately and in a way that will encourage action. It's a nation-wide attempt to improve public understanding of the schools.

UNIVERSAL MILITARY TRAINING—There is now every indication that the Department of the Army will again press for enactment of legislation to establish universal military training. Two important factors which will influence both the administration and the Congress in the degree of support given to the proposal are: (1) the need for such training in the light of the fact that current enlistments make it unnecessary for the Navy and the Air Force to procure recruits through Selective Service and, in spite of a high rate of rejections of volunteers by the Army, their calls upon the Selective Service System are little more than "token calls" to keep the System operating; and (2) the total military budget which is already in excess of 15 billion dollars a year.—American Council on Education.

WHY FEDERAL AID IS NEEDED—Failure to provide good schools for all American children and youth is a threat to the nation's economy and a menace to its security.

▶4,000,000 children, 5-17 years of age, inclusive, are not enrolled in any school.

▶2,800,000 persons, 14 years of age and older, are illiterate.

▶8,197,000 persons, 14 years of age and older, have less than a fifth-grade education.

▶659,000 persons were rejected from military service during World War II for educational deficiencies alone.

▶100,000 new teachers will be needed each year for the next 10 years, with present teacher-education institutions meeting about half of this annual demand.

▶9,000,000 more children of school enrollment age are expected in 1957 than the nation had in 1947.

SOUTHEAST CONFERENCE FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS—

In April, 1948, the Department of Elementary-School Principals sponsored its first Regional Conference in Spokane, Washington. Laura E. Kellar of Oregon made the arrangements for this Conference for elementary-school principals of the northwest states. Because of the success of the Conference, the officers have asked that a similar one be held for the southeast states this spring. Accordingly, a conference sponsored by the NEA Department of Elemen-

tary-School Principals will be held on April 21-23 in Atlanta, Georgia, at the Piedmont Hotel. The theme is *Problems Affecting the Elementary School and Elementary-School Principalship*.

Dr. Kate Wofford, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, and Dr. Henry J. Otto, University of Texas, Austin, Texas, have accepted invitations to be the speakers at the meeting. Discussion leaders and panel participants will be outstanding elementary-school principals and other leaders from the southeast and neighboring states. On April 21, an acquaintance meeting will be held at 8 P.M. for all who come early. The Registration Desk will also be open to all who wish to register in advance. Registration fee will be \$1.00. On April 22, registration begins at 8 A.M. The day's program will include a morning and afternoon general session, and a banquet. Following the banquet a "Jam Session" will be held for all interested. Those especially invited are leaders from each state—presidents of local and state groups, membership chairmen of state and national associations. On April 23, a morning general session will be followed by a luncheon at which time the meetings of the Conference will be summarized. Those desiring to make room reservations should write to the Piedmont, the Henry Grady, or the Ansley Hotel, Atlanta, Georgia.

NEW PAMPHLET LISTS 114 EXCHANGE TEACHERS—A list of names and addresses of 114 "Teachers on Exchange in the United States from Great Britain, Canada, and France, 1948-49" is included in a new mimeographed pamphlet prepared by the Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association. Copies may be obtained free upon request to the committee, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA HAS NEW ADDRESS—The Quarrie Corporation, beginning January 1, merged with Field Enterprises. The new address for World Book Encyclopedia and Childcraft is now Field Enterprises, Inc., Educational Division, 35 East Wacker Drive, Chicago 1, Illinois.

WHAT THE ENROLLMENT FIGURES IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES SHOW:

	<i>Fall 1947</i>	<i>Fall 1948</i>
Total students	2,338,000	2,408,000
Men	1,659,000	1,712,000
Women	679,000	696,000
First time in any college	593,000	569,000
Men	400,000	370,000
Women	193,000	199,000
Veterans	1,122,000	1,021,000
Men	1,098,000	1,001,000
Women	24,000	20,000

GEOGRAPHY GOALS STUDIED IN NEW SOCIAL STUDIES YEARBOOK—*Geographic Approaches to Social Education* is the title of the 19th yearbook published in January, 1949 by the National Council for the Social Studies. It was edited by Clyde F. Kohn, associate professor of geography and education at

Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. The National Council for the Social Studies and the National Council of Geography Teachers co-operated in planning the yearbook. Assistance in preparation of the yearbook also was given by the Association of American Geographers and the American Society for Professional Geographers. The 25 chapters of the 300-page publication deal with general philosophy, objectives, tools for achieving goals, and implications for the curriculum in elementary and secondary schools and in teacher-education institutions. The yearbook is available, paper-bound, \$2.50, or cloth-bound, \$3.50, from the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

SENATORS INTRODUCE BI-PARTISAN BILL TO PROVIDE FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION—A bill enabling the Federal government to participate in the financial support of schools was introduced in the United States Senate by Senator Elbert D. Thomas, Democrat, of Utah. Support for the measure which in the same form was adopted by the Senate in the 80th Congress by a vote of 58 to 22, is bi-partisan. The new bill is S 246. The amount involved is \$300,000,000 per year for the purpose of helping the states, particularly those in greatest need, to provide schools for all children and to help equalize educational opportunity by setting up a minimum foundation school program. The bill seeks to provide for every child in the United States an expenditure of no less than \$50 per year for education.

In accordance with the terms of the new Federal Aid bill, no state will receive less than \$5 for each child of school age. The moneys appropriated are to be issued by the Federal Treasury to the state treasuries and expended at the direction of the educational officials of the respective states. Allocation of the funds to the states will be directly in proportion to the number of children to be educated and in inverse proportion to the wealth of the state. In states where schools are maintained for separate racial groups, such schools will receive Federal funds in proportion to the ratio of the minority groups to the total population of the state.

An important item of the bill provides that control of educational policies shall remain in the hands of the states and their localities. Federal control or influence of the educational program is specifically prohibited.

Commending the sponsoring Senators for their support of this measure, Willard E. Givens, executive secretary of the National Education Association, expressed great satisfaction at the strong support which the measure appears to have from the newly-elected members of the Senate as well as from those who voted for its passage in the 80th Congress. "It is expected," said Dr. Givens, "that the bill will pass the Senate promptly, since the same measure was adopted in the last session by such a decisive vote.

"Only through the enactment of such legislation as the bill introduced today, pursuant to the recommendations of the President, can millions of our children be relieved of an injustice entirely inconsistent with the principles of democracy," said Dr. Givens. "Educators hope that this measure will be enacted by both Senate and House quickly so that its provisions for the equaliza-

tional of educational opportunity may go into effect when the schools open next fall."

GUIDANCE RECORDS—In the past, many inquiries have been made regarding guidance records and materials used. Mrs. Helene Keith, Director of Record Office, has just revised the Ohio State University Permanent Record Cards. The *Cumulative Record Form for Advisers* has been recently revised by a subcommittee of the University's Committee of Coordinating Advisers. Both of these revisions are being put into use for the first time this year. The *Student Cumulative Record Book* has been consolidated with many other items of general information for students and has been reprinted as a basic handbook for the University's Survey of Education Courses. This book is the successor to *Student Planning in College* by L. L. Lowe. It contains much important up-to-date information for students in teacher-training programs in the College of Education at Ohio State University. This new book, *Guidebook for Prospective Teachers* by Lyle L. Miller and Alice Z. Seeman, is being used in the University's orientation program for the first time this year. It is available to those interested at the price of one dollar per copy.

NEA PRODUCES FILM ON TOUR OF MEXICO—Production has been completed by the National Education Association of a sound motion picture film in color which depicts a tour of Mexico. Designed to inform teachers and administrators of the principal characteristics of the NEA travel program, the film shows a 1948 tour which included teachers from 20 states, Hawaii, and Great Britain. P. H. Kinsel, director of the NEA Division of Travel Service, made the film as the group traveled along the Pan American Highway and observed points of interest in Mexico City and Taxco. Details of plans for distribution of the 20-minute, 16-mm. film may be obtained from the NEA Division of Travel Service, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE—The extent to which employed children are out of school is shown by the following U. S. Census figures:

**SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AND EMPLOYMENT OF YOUNG PERSONS
14 THROUGH 17 YEARS**

	October, 1947					
	14-15 Yrs.	%	16-17 Yrs.	%	Total	%
Total Population	4,180,000	100	4,330,000	100	8,490,000	100
In School and not Working	3,300,000	80	2,300,000	53	5,600,000	66
Out of School and not Working	130,000	3	350,000	8	480,000	6
In School and working	510,000	12	650,000	15	1,140,000	13
Out of School and Working (or Seeking Work)	220,000	5	1,050,000	24	1,270,000	15

Fifteen per cent of the population 14-17 years were out of school and working, ranging from 5 per cent of the 14 and 15 year olds to 24 per cent of the 16 and 17 year olds. Of all who were employed, 53 per cent were *not* attending school. This is a slight improvement over the previous year when the percentage

was 56. Among children under 16 years, by far the largest number who are out of school and at work are those living in rural areas.—*The American Child*, December 1948.

HIGH SCHOOL DROP-OUTS—The fact, revealed by the October Census Survey, that 1,050,000 boys and girls of 16 and 17 years—one in every four of this age group—are at work and not enrolled in any type of public or private, day or evening school, constitutes one of the greatest challenges to our educational system. When the full effect of the increased birth rate of the war years reaches the high schools, this problem will become even more urgent. Far larger numbers of boys and girls will be *potential* high-school students, making the choice between high-school graduation and leaving school for employment. The Census estimates that in 1945 there were 10,649,000 children 10-14 years inclusive in the population. Roughly, this is the group who, in the current year of 1948-49, are of high-school age. By 1955, there will be 13,846,000 youth 10 to 14 years—an addition of 3,200,000 youth to the potential high-school group for the early 1960's. The extent to which secondary schools, during this next decade, can expand their facilities and adapt their programs to the widely varying needs of the ever-increasing numbers of boys and girls who should complete a high-school education will determine, to a large extent, the educational level of our citizenship.—*The American Child*, December, 1948.

FOURTH (1949) ANNUAL NATION-WIDE HIGH-SCHOOL TESTING PROGRAM—The Co-operative Test Division of the Educational Testing Service, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York 23, N. Y. will conduct its fourth nationwide testing program of pupils in grades 10 through 12 between April 1 and April 30, 1949, inclusive. The program is limited to 300,000 pupils. The purpose of the test, an 8-page, 80-minute objective test with a separate answer sheet for each pupil, is to find out how widely and discriminating high-school pupils of the nation have been reading and thinking about important social and scientific developments in the world today. The test is organized into two parts. Part 1 is concerned with social, economic, political, and military developments; Part 2 deals with developments in science, technology, and medicine. The scoring will be done for the Educational Testing Service at the State University of Iowa. This central scoring relieves the teachers in the participating schools of an onerous clerical burden. Through the use of machine methods and large-scale procedures, this work can be done centrally much more accurately and economically than it could be done in the local systems. Each paper is scored *twice* by expert scorers, guaranteeing practically 100% accuracy.

A report of the results will be made to each participating school. This includes the averages of the part and total scores for the pupils in each grade, together with tables of percentile norms for the interpretation of these averages. There will also be a summary report of the results of the nation-wide program. This report will contain: (a) tables of percentile norms for total scores of individual pupils for the nation as a whole, and separately for individual regions; (b) tables of percentile norms for *school averages* (part and total

scores) by grades, both for the country as a whole and for separate regions; and (c) a table of percentages of correct responses to individual items in the test, based on a representative nation-wide sample. This will be mailed to all participating schools about May 16.

CAPITAL OUTLAYS FOR SCHOOL BUILDINGS IN NEW YORK STATE—

It is estimated by local school authorities that, at present construction costs, a total of more than \$1,300,000,000 of capital construction will be needed in New York state within the next eight years to maintain the elementary- and secondary-school program at a minimum acceptable level for the anticipated number of pupils who will be enrolled. The health, safety, and sound education of 827,000 pupils will be dependent on the provision of these new facilities. Not less than \$580,000,000 of the total amount, to provide adequate housing for 573,000 pupils, will be needed within the next two years. The Board of Regents recommends legislation at this session of the Legislature which will provide for:

(1) The establishment of a Legislative Commission on School Buildings, with authority to study the immediate and long-term capital needs of the local districts and to outline a program of state and local action to meet those needs, including the use of such financial assistance, if any, as may be made available by the Federal government for school building construction.

(2) The granting of authority to this Commission to meet the immediate needs of certain school districts in which conditions are now or soon will be desperate.

(3) Appropriation of funds for the use of the Legislative Commission in meeting such needs as the Commission may determine to be emergency needs. It is estimated that approximately \$18,000,000 should be provided by the Legislature of 1949 for this purpose.

(4) Readjustment of the existing provisions for school-building aid to central districts, to bring these provisions into line with current economic conditions and construction costs. It is estimated that such a readjustment will require, for existing and new centralizations, an annual increase in expenditure by the state of approximately \$500,000 more than the increases likely to be required under the present law.

FILM PROGRAM—A new phase of the McGraw-Hill Book Company's text-film program was made public on January 7 and 8, when the Audio-Visual Institute of the American Museum of Natural History presented selected titles from two of six new series of 35-mm. silent filmstrips prepared for high-school and college use. From the over-all total of 55 separate filmstrips, seven were chosen for screening before an audience of audio-visual teachers and administrators. They included the complete series of five filmstrips on high-school Etiquette, and "Columnar Journals" and "Controlling Accounts" from ten new filmstrips on college accounting.

According to an announcement by Albert J. Rosenberg, manager of the company's Text-Film Department, the four remaining series, composed of ten filmstrips each, are on the following subjects: Chemistry, American Govern-

ment, Zoology, and Biology—with each series closely correlated with a leading McGraw-Hill textbook. He said that the Etiquette series has already been released; those on Chemistry and Accounting are scheduled for release in February, and the others will be made available later this year. The filmstrips average about forty frames in length.

The subject matter for the individual filmstrips was selected after careful consultation with instructors in the separate fields. It was then organized into convenient teaching units and presented in the individual filmstrips by means of photographs, drawings, charts, and diagrams with brief captions on each. In the Etiquette series, individual films cover the subjects of family relationships, school spirit, good grooming, table manners, and social relationships. The Accounting series includes such titles as introduction to accounting, journalizing, and posting, the work sheet, adjusting the books, and analysis of financial statements. In the Chemistry series, there are individual filmstrips on the kinetic-molecular theory, formula writing, atomic theory, chemical equations, acids and bases, electrolysis, ionization, and the periodic table. Individual titles for the remaining filmstrip series will be disclosed later.

The six filmstrip series are correlated with McGraw-Hill textbooks. These Text-Film series, together with the books with which they are correlated are as follows: Etiquette, with *Manners Made Easy* by Beery; Chemistry, with *Chemistry for Our Times* by Weaver and Foster; Accounting, with *Accounting Fundamentals* by MacFarland and Ayars; American Government, with *American System of Government* by Ferguson and McHenry; Zoology, with *General Zoology* by Storer; and Biology, with *Biology: the Science of Life* by MacDougall and Hegner. All filmstrips are available as complete series, or separately, by direct purchase from the McGraw-Hill Book Company, Text-Film Department, 330 West 42nd street, New York 18, N. Y.

PUBLICATION PRESENTS EVALUATION OF FAIR EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES LAWS IN VARIOUS STATES—Fair employment practices legislation, much discussed during recent years not only in Congress but in state legislatures as well, is the subject of the latest Public Affairs Bulletin, entitled *Antidiscrimination Legislation in the American States*, just issued by the Library of Congress. The Library's survey reveals a steady increase in the number of antidiscrimination laws, passed now in one state, now in another, applying now to one type of occupation or employment, now to another. On the basis of this historical development, the author concludes that it was almost inevitable that sooner or later there should develop some such movement as that now under way in many jurisdictions, to gather together in one statute a guarantee of protection to all persons against discrimination in employment for all of the common reasons which heretofore have been dealt with separately in individual acts. Besides this background information, the bulletin presents an analysis of the provisions of the six existing laws of this nature, describes the administrative organizations and procedures established for their enforcement, and analyzes the experience under them, in so far as it can be evaluated for so short a period.

Opponents of fair employment practices legislation have raised serious questions as to whether the enactment of general legislation is the right way

to deal with the problem of discrimination in employment, and as to whether such legislation, if enacted, could be made to work. The bulletin deals at length with both of these questions. After summarizing the arguments that have been advanced both for and against the adoption of such legislation, the author points out that, whatever one's decision as to the validity of these various arguments, the possibility of enforcing such laws now appears to be a matter of record. Individual guarantees applying to particular groups in particular states have been enforced for many years, while the enlarged program envisioned by the framers of so-called "FEPC" legislation appears thus far to be working effectively in the states in which it has been tried.

The bulletin contains a number of analytical tables, and much valuable supplementary material is included in the appendix. An impressive list is given of the earlier protective enactments from the several states, antedating and leading up to the "FEPC" laws, classified on an occupational basis. The texts of the New York law and the Philadelphia ordinance are presented in full, as illustrative of this type of state and municipal legislation. There is also an extensive bibliography. Copies of *Antidiscrimination Legislation in the American States*, which is issued as Public Affairs Bulletin No. 65, may be purchased from the Card Division, the Library of Congress, Washington 25, D.C., at 61 cents each.

MINORS IN STREET TRADES—In Louisiana, a special law provides a compulsory system of workmen's compensation for minors between the ages of 12 and 18 who are engaged in specified street trades. The street trades specified include the selling, offering for sale, soliciting, or displaying of any articles, goods, merchandise, commercial service, posters, circulars, newspapers, or magazines, or delivery of or collection for newspapers and periodicals. The act applies to any person or corporation engaging more than 3 minors. "Engaging a minor" is defined to include employing or permitting others to hire him, or receiving a benefit, monetary or otherwise, as a result of such employment or permission to hire. A minor is covered regardless of whether he is legally employed. The law provides that a minor injured while engaged in a street trade shall be entitled to compensation benefits from the person "engaging" the minor. The benefit payable to an injured minor or, in case of his death, to his dependents, is to be computed according to the schedule in the workmen's compensation law.

An amendment to the Louisiana act entitles certain independent contractors, who formerly were not covered, to the benefits of the workmen's compensation law, if such a contractor spend a substantial part of his worktime in manual labor in carrying out the terms of the contract. The workmen's compensation act is to apply to all illegally employed minors. Previously, minors employed in violation of the minimum-age law were not covered.

In Missouri, increased coverage is provided by an amendment which eliminates the former provision that exempted employees earning \$3,600 or more a year. In Virginia, silicosis was replaced in the list of occupational diseases by pneumoconiosis, a more inclusive term. Another amendment provides

that the time limitation for filing notice of injury and claim for compensation shall begin after the workman first experiences a distinct manifestation of the disease (as previously) or after a diagnosis is made.

SAFETY IN SPORTS—This is a comprehensive book written by Don Cash Eaton. Its purpose is to help reduce accidents in the area responsible for more injuries than any other part of the school program. In addition to covering a variety of sports, the book includes chapters on the relationship of skills, administration, leadership, and the athletic plant to safety. *Safety in Sports* should be of assistance to all coaches, physical educators, and others interested in this field. It is published by Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York City, at \$4.50 per copy.

NEW YORK BOARD OF REGENTS RECOMMENDS TEACHER SALARY INCREASE—The Board of Regents, in its recent publication, *Regents' Statement of Major Educational Needs of the State of New York*, December 17, 1948, recommends enactment of legislation to provide that: (1) Effective on July 1, 1949, for all present and prospective teachers, the minimum salaries and the salary schedules set forth in the 1947 teachers' salary law shall be increased at each salary level by \$200 in the A schedules, \$220 in the B schedules and \$250 in the C schedules. This increase is recommended as no more than a presently essential minimum, with the expectation that wherever necessary local boards of education will take full advantage of increases in state aid to provide higher salaries than the minimums required, in order to assure competent teaching staffs. The proposed increase will provide for minimum beginning salaries of \$2200 in school districts and cities of under 100,000 population, \$2420 in city districts of between 100,000 and 1,000,000 and districts in Nassau and Westchester counties (except districts employing fewer than eight teachers) and \$2750 in New York City. Minimum top salaries for teachers who have received the promotional increments provided for in the law and who have had five or more years of training will be \$4500, \$4930, and \$5575, in the three types of districts.

(2) Salary increments shall be automatic through the ninth salary step. In order to adjust opportunities for promotion to the larger number of teachers who will thus become eligible for promotion at the ninth step, the minimum percentage of teachers who are to receive salaries at or above the tenth salary step shall be increased from 30 per cent to 40 per cent.

(3) Permanently certificated teachers now placed at or below the ninth salary step, whose salary levels represent four or more years of service less than their actual years of service, shall be automatically advanced to the next higher step on the applicable state schedule.

(4) The Commissioner of Education shall conduct a continuing review of the operation of the minimum salary law as revised and shall recommend to the Legislature at such times as may be appropriate, and in any case at the legislative session of 1954, such amendments to the law as may be required to achieve proper balance between the supply of teachers and the needs of the school.

SHIFTING POPULATION CREATES MAJOR PROBLEM FOR NATION'S SCHOOLS—The movement of some 12 million men and women into the armed services during World War II initiated mobile living habits in the United States which point to greater internal population shifts in the future than occurred during prewar years. This continuing population mobility, the National Education Association asserts in a recent report, makes education in the United States increasingly a responsibility which the national government must share with the states and local communities.

"Nearly 8,000,000 civilians," the report points out, "relocated across state lines between December, 1941, and March, 1945. After the war was over, people kept on moving. Almost 6,000,000 civilians established new residences in other states in the first six months of peace; two-thirds of these were either persons who had not moved during the war, or wartime migrants moving on to new places.

"Regions where educational opportunities are least extensive, are sending an outflow of their people to the rest of the nation and advancing mechanization of agriculture in the South, merely delayed by the war, will undoubtedly accelerate its out-migration. Increasingly the social costs of poor schools in any region will fall on the entire nation. For this reason alone Federal aid to the schools is urgently needed to equalize educational opportunities among the states."

In a foreword to the report, Willard E. Givens, executive secretary of the NEA, states: "Equality of responsibility for the general welfare, each according to his capacity, in peace and in war, always has been a part of the American tradition. . . On far-flung battle fronts men by the millions recently faced death and many actually gave their lives believing that their country would do a better job in the future; that a way would be found to give their children, their younger brothers and sisters, and all other children an equal educational opportunity and a fair start in life.

"The heaviest burden of paying for World War II and for the postwar reconstruction in which we are engaged will be laid by the Federal government upon those who are now the nation's youth. It is clear that the Federal government has a definite responsibility to help educate its citizens. The plain fact is that the common-sense American way to meet this responsibility is for the Federal government to help the states finance their educational programs and at the same time leave the control of the schools entirely with the states and local communities."

STATISTICS FOR SCHOOLMEN—The population of the United States is now officially estimated by the Bureau of the Census as 147,280,000, or 15,500,000 more than it had been during the 1940 census. Net incomes of private physicians last year averaged \$9884. (Cost of becoming a physician and of equipping to begin practice is estimated at \$30,000.) More than 3 million workers in industry are now covered in their contracts by plans offering health and welfare services. Among the most common provisions is that for a \$500 or \$1,000 life insurance policy paid for by the employer. Following the lead of Mexico, Brazil has also begun an anti-illiteracy campaign. Last year more than 300,000 adults learned

to read and write. This year 700,000 students are enrolled in literacy classes. More than 600,000 children between the ages of 14 and 15 were at work in April of this year. The National Child Labor Committee says that "there is a general upward trend in child labor." One of the great public health triumphs of recent years has been the drop in deaths from pneumonia and influenza. During the last 25 years, death rates from these diseases decreased nearly 90 per cent in the age range 20 to 44 years. More than 400 cities taking part in the national urban rat control campaign have enacted rat control ordinances, have rat-proofed city property, and have improved garbage collection and sewage disposal. One fourth of the 25,000 students enrolled at the University of Minnesota are married.

SOUND BUSINESS PRACTICES FOR PROSPECTIVE YOUNG FARMERS DRAMATIZED IN NEW PUBLICATION—Sound business practices for the prospective young farmer are described in *Your Life in the Country*, the newest in a series of publications prepared by the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a department of the National Education Association. Written by Dr. Effie G. Bathurst of the U. S. Office of Education, the 400-page book is both a "story and study" of the consumer problems which confront a rural family. Through the experiences of one family dealing with consumer problems, it dramatizes the problems of rural young people.

The wide range of consumer topics covered in the book includes family, community, and school activities; income management on the farm; and using and spending money wisely. Emphasis in the book is placed on the concept of "farming as a way of living as well as a way of making a living." The publication stresses values in richer life for rural young people who intelligently use the resources of the farm and illustrates ways of utilization.

Howard A. Dawson, NEA rural service director, in commenting on the new publication, summed up the need for guidance information on farming as a "way of life." "Of the 8,600,000 young people of school age living on farms," he said, "Approximately half of them will remain on the farm. All of these young people need the facts concerning what farm life can become to them. The choices they make should not be left to chance—as has usually been the case in the past. This is of concern not only to the young people involved but also to the entire country. The productivity, stability, and sound economic condition of agriculture is of nation-wide concern. In 1945, thirty-nine per cent of the 5,860,000 farms in the United States had incomes of less than \$1,000. Subsistence farming does not strengthen our economy and is probably an unwholesome influence upon our entire social structure." Thomas H. Briggs is the director of the Consumer Education Study which was initiated in 1942. *Your Life in the Country* was published for the Consumer Education Study by the McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 W. 42nd Street, New York 18, N. Y., at \$2.80 per copy. Also available from the Consumer Education Study, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6 D. C., at \$1.60 per copy to members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals until March 1, 1949.

CONNECTICUT'S SCHOOL NEEDS—At a recent conference of the Connecticut Association of Boards of Education held at Trinity College, Hartford, Colone!

Vernon S. Morehouse, State Director of Selective Service, told the group that boards of education have a responsibility in advising high-school students about their draft status and aiding them to make decisions that are satisfactory under existing law. Dr. Finis E. Engleman, State Commissioner of Education, in a talk on state aid for education, said that an increase in such aid is needed in Connecticut in order to meet increased costs, amounting to \$40 for each pupil, needed to maintain educational standards. "I am inclined to think that we will lose a good many of our superintendents of schools if something isn't done about enabling them to meet higher costs of living," he said. He also pointed to the present critical shortage of school teachers and school space as examples of the need for increased funds from the state to support the state's educational program. "Ten years ago," Dr. Engleman went on, "we spent three per cent of our income on education, and last year we spent only 1.7 per cent on education. I don't know what the figures will be this year, but they won't represent much of an increase in the percentage."

Dr. Albert N. Jorgensen of the University of Connecticut, stressing the differences between education in democratic and totalitarian societies, said that the purposes of American education are to acquaint each citizen with current problems, to give him a knowledge of past solutions to similar problems, and to inform him of the needs and possibilities of the future. He also pointed out that taxpayers owe it to themselves to know more about what is going on in their public schools. Too few people, he said, have a full appreciation for the services rendered by state universities.

MOVIE HABITS OF HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS—More than 67 per cent of junior and senior high-school students attend the movies at least once in seven days. This is indicated in a recent poll conducted by balloting of 79,755 students and by the 1,600 high-school newspaper-members of the Institute of Student Opinion. The students were also asked what single factor most strongly influenced their choice of a motion picture. Answers varied considerably with no single factor coming close to a majority of the opinion. The largest percentage, in fact—19.10%—stated that they "just go" for no particular reason. Although this group was larger than those whose chief reason was based on either reading about it in a magazine (18.46%) or in a newspaper (12.13%), it was considerably smaller than the combined percentage of 30.59 per cent who attended because they had read about it in either medium. More than 16 per cent said they were most strongly influenced in their choice of motion pictures by hearing their school friends talk about them.

"It is significant," pointed out M. R. Robinson, president and publisher of *Scholastic Magazines*, "that approximately one-third of the total vote indicated that influences directly traceable to school life are a paramount factor in selection of movies. This group goes to a movie because they hear their school friends talk about it, because they have read the book on which the film is based, or because they heard about it in the classroom or from the teacher. Add to this, the fact that many of those who say they 'just go' really make their decision because of one of these school influences."

BRITISH FILMS—The British Information Services, an agency of the British government, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y., has recently announced the availability of a number of 16-mm. films and filmstrips. The following list gives the titles of the films and filmstrips together with some information as to their content and their cost. Write to the Services for information concerning prices on unit or quantity purchases.

FILMS

Lowlands of Scotland (13 min.; price, \$29.75; rent, \$2.50) The historical border country stretches from Glasgow to Edinburgh.

Midland Journey (13 min.; price, \$29.75; rent, \$2.50) The midlands contain industrial towns, pasture lands, and the home of Shakespeare.

Moving Millions (17 min.; rent, \$2.50) A comprehensive survey of the vast organization needed to run London's traffic.

Radio Service (20 min.; rent, \$2.50) Gives a clear and comprehensive picture of the radio and electronics industry in Britain.

So This Is London (13 min.; price, \$29.75; rent, \$2.50) The biggest city in the world is full of fascinating and historical landmarks.

They Live Again (18 min.; rent, \$2.50) A study of the work carried on at a rehabilitation center for injured coal miners.

Town Rats (16 min.; rent, \$2.50) Shows the dangers of a rat-infested neighborhood and describes the best methods of extermination.

Ulster Story (13 min.; price, \$29.75; rent, \$2.50) Ulster is a land of small farms, popular resorts, and famous legends.

The Way To The West (13 min.; price, \$29.75; rent, \$2.50) The rugged sea counties of Cornwall and Devon are famous for tales of sea adventures.

Welsh Magic (13 min.; price, \$29.75; rent, \$2.50) Wales is a land of mountains and valleys, of coal mines and musical voices.

FILMSTRIPS

Achimota College (45 frames; price, \$1.00) Achimota College, built and endowed by the British government, is one of the pioneer schools in the training of African teachers, engineers, and university students. Accompanied by a study guide.

Village College (53 frames; price, \$1.00) The Village College is an experiment in welding the life of communities according to the cultural pattern of old English life. Accompanied by a study guide.

ARTS ASSOCIATION CONVENTION—The 38th annual convention of The Eastern Arts Association will be held in Boston, April 6, 7, 8, and 9, 1949. Headquarters will be the Hotel Statler, where meetings, conferences, demonstrations, and exhibits will be held for the four days. More than 1500 teachers and supervisors of art and school administrators are expected from various parts of the Association area, east of Ohio and north of Virginia. This year the convention is being organized around the theme, "The Arts in General Education." Emphasis on the need for the integration of the arts in general education and the reciprocal values to be derived will furnish the background for the meetings. It is being generally recognized by educators that the under-

standing and appreciation of the arts, with some participation in art activities, provides elements in the education of youth which make for richer and more effective living. The most effective ways to realize these values will be discussed from various angles and at different levels of instruction at the general sessions, in the sectional meetings, and in the demonstrations.

Full details of names of speakers and participants in the working groups will be given in forthcoming issues of the *Art Education Bulletin*, the official publication of The Eastern Arts Association. Inquiries concerning additional details of the convention should be addressed to the Secretary of The Eastern Arts Association, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pennsylvania.

BOYS AND GIRLS WEEK—National Boys and Girls Week will be observed in hundreds of communities throughout the United States and Canada from April 30 to May 7, 1949. The celebration will mark the 29th annual observance of this important youth event. With the theme, "Building for Citizenship," the program is designed to focus the attention of the public on the interests, activities, and problems of youth. It calls attention to the organizations and programs serving their needs, and seeks to arouse the interest of the entire community in supporting measures to strengthen and ensure the wholesome, purposeful development of all boys and girls. The activities planned for the observance emphasize important factors in the growth of youth, including citizenship training, education, recreation, occupational guidance, home life, religious education, health and safety, understanding among nations and peoples, conservation of natural resources, and membership in boys' and girls' organizations. Suggested daily programs for the week include:

Citizenship Day—Saturday, April 30

Day in Churches—Sunday, May 1

Day in Schools—Monday, May 2

Health and Safety Day—Tuesday, May 3

United Nations Day—Wednesday, May 4

Careers Day—Thursday, May 5

Family Day—Friday, May 6

Day of Recreation—Saturday, May 7

Every community, regardless of size, can sponsor a Boys and Girls Week celebration at little or no cost. There is no better time to call the attention of the community to its youth—to its obligations to youth and to the home and family and to the organizations serving their needs—the church, the school, and youth-serving groups. For the second year, plaques will be presented to the communities putting on the most outstanding Boys and Girls Week. Information about Boys and Girls Week and helpful suggestions for carrying out the program of the week, including a poster and a Manual of Suggestions, may be obtained free of charge from National Boys and Girls Week Committee, 35 E. Wacker Drive, Room 950, Chicago 1, Illinois.

CORONET INSTRUCTIONAL FILMS—One film each in Physical Science, Language Arts, and Social Studies make up new films recently released by Coronet. A short description and information on each of these new educational productions follow:

Carbon And Its Compounds (One reel, sound, color or black-and-white; for senior high schools and colleges) A diamond. . . a pencil. . . and a chunk of charcoal. Beginning with these familiar objects, this film explains carbon's simple compounds and introduces hydrocarbons and the more complex chain and ring compounds. It teaches appreciation and understanding of the tremendous importance of carbon in our domestic and industrial worlds.

Discussion in Democracy (One reel, sound, color or black-and-white; for junior and senior high schools, colleges, and adults) In this film story, a typical group of students learn, through expert advice and through their own experiences, the relationship of organized discussion to a democratic society. . . and they develop a threefold program for the leader and the participants in any discussion, involving: (1) Preparation, (2) Planning, and (3) Personalities.

The Supreme Court (One reel, sound, color or black-and-white; for high schools, colleges, and adults) This story about the Supreme Court of the United States begins in a city a thousand miles from Washington. As we follow a case from inception, through the lower courts, to final hearing before the Supreme Court. . . we learn the relationship of the court to the "plain citizen." We see the Supreme Court as the guardian of Constitutional right; learn its function, powers, and jurisdiction. . . a candid film lesson of the highest court in our Federal Judicial System.

These new Coronet films may be secured through purchase or lease-purchase for \$90 in full color or \$45 in black-and-white. They are also available through the nation's leading film-lending libraries. For a complete catalog, or further information on purchase, lease-purchase, preview prior to purchase, or rental sources, write to: Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois.

SCIENCE COURSES FOR TEACHERS—Courses which will accommodate 1500 students, in undergraduate work, graduate work, and in related art fields, are being planned for the summer session at Adelphi College, Garden City, N. Y., according to Mr. W. Gehret Kleinspehn, summer school director. This will be the first year that Adelphi has offered graduate work during the summer months. The summer session is scheduled for July 5 through August 12, in the expectation that a number of teachers wishing to take graduate work will be interested. Included in the plans for the summer session is the Center of Creative Arts, which will be maintained at the college for the fourth consecutive year this summer and which will offer workshops and seminars in related art fields, with competent instructors and advisers in each field. Bulletins announcing the specific courses to be offered will be available by February 1 and may be obtained by writing Mr. W. Gehret Kleinspehn, Director of Summer Session, Adelphi College, Garden City, N. Y.

1949 ANNUAL CONTEST FOR CHILDREN'S LITERATURE—The Julia Ellsworth Ford Foundation established in 1934 by Mrs. Julia Ellsworth Ford, well-known writer of children's books and plays for the encouragement of better literature for children, believes that no other single influence outweighs books in their contribution to a child's development. The Foundation bearing

her name sponsors an award of a cash prize of \$500 outright and \$750 against royalties to the author of a book manuscript, written for children, that is selected by a board of judges as a distinguished contribution to current literature for children. After the award, Julian Messner, Inc., will act as publisher and distributor of the prize-winning book. Last year's award went to Alice Rogers Hager for *The Canvas Castle* to be published this fall. Closing date for receipt of manuscripts is April 15, 1949. For full details and entry blanks, write to The Julia Ellsworth Ford Foundation Contest, c/o Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street, New York 18, N. Y.

ANNUAL JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL CONFERENCE—The School of Education at New York University will hold its twenty-second annual two-day Junior High-School Conference on March 25 and 26. Taking as its theme, "Adapting the Junior High School to the Needs of Early Adolescence," the annual conference will be directed by Professor G. Derwood Baker of the School of Education and will be attended by several hundred principals, superintendents, and teachers from secondary schools located throughout the United States.

The Book Column

Pamphlets for Pupil and Teacher Use

Advancing the Education of the Hospitalized Child. New York 5: The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway. 1948. 36 pp. A report of a conference viewing education as therapy for handicapped children. Contains vignettes of current educational practices in places sensitized to the problem.

All Hands. Washington 25, D.C. Supt. of Documents. Jan. 1949. 20 cents the issue; \$2.00 a year. A magazine of naval information and interest replete with illustrations. Published by the Bureau of Naval Personnel.

ALLPORT, G. W. *ABC's of Scapegoating.* New York 10: Antidefamation League of B'nai B'rith, 212 Fifth Ave. 1949. 56 pp. 20 cents. A study of psychological problems in national morale, dwelling mainly upon a comprehensive exposition of basic mechanisms and conditions of scapegoating in a modern world.

Annotated Bibliography of the Last Twelve Yearbooks. Washington, D.C.: Dept. of Elem. Sch. Prin., NEA, 1201-16th St., N.W. 1949. 62 pp. \$1.00. Covers 16th through 27th yearbooks and is a classified guide to professional problems and educational responsibilities in the elementary schools.

Australia in Facts and Figures. New York or San Francisco: Commonwealth Dept. of Information, Australian Government Trade Commissioners. 1948. 64 pp. Limited edition. An official account of Australian economy and administration as prepared by the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics in Sydney and reported as of June 30, 1948.

BATHURST, E. G. and others. *14 Questions on Elementary-School Organization.* Washington 25, D.C. Supt. of Documents. 1948. 36 pp. 10 cents. Answers to

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A Brief Guide to Teaching Industrial Arts in the Secondary Schools. Tallahassee, Florida: State Dept. of Education. 1948. 117 pp. An overview of the educational needs in industrial arts in general education and in the junior and senior high-school levels particularly. Reviews broad scope of industrial arts as basic part of education in a technologically dominated era. Suggests objectives and specific area content outlines. Diagrammatic chapter on administration of program. Classified bibliography.

The Clarkson Letter. Vol. 3, No. 9. Potsdam, New York: The Thomas S. Clarkson Memorial College of Technology. 1948. Addresses presented at the inauguration of Jess H. Davis as president on Oct. 8, 1948. Includes Mr. Davis's statement of objectives and opportunities.

EATON, V. M. *Essentials of English.* New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave. 1948. 134 pp. \$2.25. A text for first-year high-school students in English, presupposing no grammatical background and limited vocabulary. Contains spelling lists of high-frequency words, memory selections, section on versification, and objective tests.

The Facts on Federal Aid for Schools. Washington 6, D.C.: NEA, 1201-16th St., N.W. 1948. 24 pp. 15 cents. Graphic, textual, and tabulated data on differences in economic ability, responsibilities, and effort to support schools in the various states. A case for equality of responsibility for the general welfare.

Fat Salvage Report. New York 17: American Fat Salvage Committee, 295 Madison Ave. A graphic report of the fat salvage campaign from 1942 to 1948.

Federal Labor Laws and Agencies. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1948. 94 pp. 25 cents. A layman's guide of the important provisions of statutes. Useful information in nontechnical summaries. Indexed for specific causes and particular services. Prepared by the Bureau of Labor Standards. Interprets provisions on labor-management relations, wages and hours, social security, employment service, apprenticeship, veterans' rights.

Fundamental Education. Washington 25, D.C.: Supt. of Documents. 1948. 28 pp. 10 cents. Discusses one of UNESCO's plans in support of world peace.

Guidance Services Handbook. Salt Lake City: Utah State Supt. of Pub. Instruction. 1948. 132 pp. An administrative guide to guidance. For use in planning a guidance program, in-service training, and as a handbook for guidance workers. Emphasizes service to individual student and correlative function of evaluating and improving educational program of the school.

HANDLIN, OSCAR and MARY F. *Danger in Discord.* New York 10: Anti-defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 212 Fifth Ave. 1948. 39 pp. 20 cents. The New World has progressed by reason of the diversity of its origin and has no medieval past of antisemitic hostility. It must keep alive its tradition of liberty and equality, for in disunity there is discord and danger to the strength of the union.

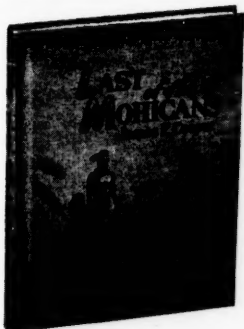
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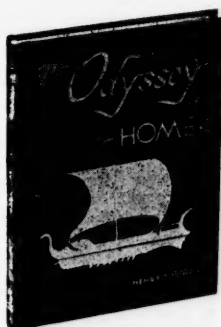
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- HOUGH, L. P. *Monday, Tuesday, and Always*. Gainesville, Florida: Project in Applied Economics, Coll. of Education, Univ. of Fla. 1945. 48 pp. 30 cents. This booklet is a publication for use in the early elementary grades designed to improve community living. It is published by a nonprofit, public service project in applied economics of a university or teachers' college. All booklets prepared by these Projects are distributed at cost of printing only to stimulate instruction in economic education—improving health, food, clothing, and housing—in schools and colleges.
- How Does Your School Score?* New York 16: The National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 Fourth Ave. A checklist for self-audit of school policies and practices in intergroup relations, prepared for Brotherhood Week, February 20-27.
- Institute of International Education*. New York 19: Institute of International Education, 2 W. 45th St. 1948. 136 pp. A detailed report of the purposes and work, the scope and potentialities of the Institute. Contains a description of the Fulbright Plan, the Student Ship Program, international student, professor, and specialized personnel exchange operation, industrial trainee program, summer school projects, Institute of Inter-American Affairs trainee program, etc. Directory of exchange appointees.
- deJOUVENEL, BERTRAND. *No Vacancies*. Irvington-on-Hudson, New York: The Foundation for Economic Education, Inc. 1948. 15 pp. 8 copies, \$1.00. A study of rent control in France, continuous since the First World War, which throws light on the problems of housing in America.
- KNAPP, R. H. *Teaching the Social Studies Problems Course in Selected Senior High Schools*. Lincoln 1, Nebr.: Board of Publications, Extension Division, Univ. of Nebr. 1948. 26 pp. 50 cents. A study of the "Problems of Democracy" course as it is widely offered as a requirement for graduation throughout the nation.
- Let's Organize*. Washington, D.C.: Allied Youth, 1709 M Street, N.W. 1949. 68 pp. 50 cents. A manual for Allied Youth Posts which are seeking to establish effective programs of worth-while recreation and constructive activities designed to help teen-age youth withstand the social pressure favoring the use of alcoholic beverages. Presents organizational aids, study plans, pointers for positive program, hints for good public relations and support, and the constitution.
- MACKIE, ROMAINE P. *Crippled Children in School*. (U.S. Off. of Educ. Bltn. 1948 No. 5). Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1948. 37 pp. 15 cents. Presents problems of guidance and instruction in aiding handicapped children to realize their potentialities physically, mentally, socially, and vocationally. Describes effective adjustments of programs in schools for enriching the educational experiences of crippled children.
- McHARRY, L. J. (Chairman). *A Progress Report of the I.A.T.E. Committee on a Study of the Teaching of American Literature*. Urbana, Illinois: C. W. Roberts,

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204a Lincoln Hall. 1948. 20 pp. 25 cents. A progress report to the Illinois Association of Teachers of English.

MILES, WILLIE MAE, and others. *Gertrude's New House*. Gainesville, Florida. Coll. of Education, Univ. of Fla. 1946. 52 pp. 25 cents. It is an interesting story of a little girl who encourages her family to build a new house. It is designed for use in the early elementary grades to improve community living and is published by a nonprofit, public service project in applied economics of a university or teachers' college.

Ninth International Conference of American States. (No. 3263) Washington, D. C.: Division of Publications, Office of Public Affairs, Dept. of State. 1948. 317 pp. A documentary report of the Conference with chapters on its background, organization, juridical and political problems, social and cultural matters, and its plan for collective security and economic co-operation among the Americas.

Opportunities for the Handicapped. Cincinnati 2, Ohio: Supt. of Schs., 216 E. 9th St. 1948. 40 pp. Annual report by Claude V. Courter to the city Board of Education. One of a series of reports planned to contribute to a better understanding of the total program of education in the Cincinnati schools. Describes opportunities for the physically handicapped, the mentally retarded, and the socially maladjusted. Also *Statistical Supplement* for 1947-1948.

OSTRANDER, R. H. *Oak Ridge Schools—A Report to Parents*. Oak Ridge, Tenn.: Office of the Supt. 1948. 16 pp. In graphic form, this report tells a brief story of the nursery, elementary, and secondary-school program in this city.

The Other Side of the Record. New York 5: The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway. 1948. 12 pp. Free. An address by Basil O'Connor, president of the Foundation, before the 27th annual convention of the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults in Chicago, dealing with the attitude of the American people toward voluntary health movements and the role of welfare agencies.

PAULSON, BLANCHE. *Days of Our Youth*. Chicago: Board of Education. 1948. 70 pp. 25c. A study guide for the topic, "The Process of Growing Up," a development of the self-appraisal and careers classes of the city. With suggested and extra work for the ambitious.

Planning the Schoolhouse. Olympia: Washington. State Supt. of Pub. Instruction. 1948. 23 pp. *Proceedings of the first annual Washington State School Plant Workshop*, which emphasized the educational needs of boys and girls as the prime consideration in schoolhouse construction. Selected bibliography on the school plant and directory of educators, architects, contractors, business and agency representatives, lay leaders included.

Prevent World War III. New York 22: Society for the Prevention of World War III, Inc., 515 Madison Ave. Nov.-Dec. 1948. 40 pp. Original material and reprints from the nation's well-known periodicals on the German problem.

Proceedings—DAVI Conferences. Washington, D. C.: NEA, Dept. of Audio-

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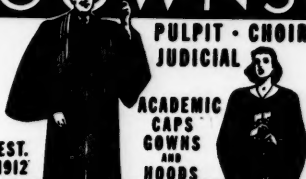
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Visual Instruction, 1201—16th St., N. W. 1948. 62 pp. Addresses consider such topics as television in the public school, problems facing educational film producers, *per capita* expenditures for audio-visual equipment, trends in teacher-education, research in techniques, mass media, illustrative materials.

The Program of Studies in International Affairs. Denver: The Social Science Foundation, University of Denver, Ben M. Cherrington, Director. 1948. 32 pp. Outlines the work being promoted.

Publications of Bantam Books, Inc., 1107 Broadway, New York 10, N. Y., available at 25 cents each plus 5 cents for postage and handling:

No. 416 *Miss Dilly Says No* by Theodore Pratt. 182 pp. Novel.

No. 463. *The Other Room* by W. T. Hedden. 308 pp. Novel.

No. 506 *Lucky to Be a Yankee* by Joe DiMaggio. 154 pp. A Yankee Clipper's story.

Publications of the General Motors Corporation, 3044 West Grand Boulevard, Detroit 2, Michigan.

Carburetor. 1947. 104 pp. Prepared to help the mechanic in pursuing his daily task of servicing Pontiac cars.

Differential. 1948. 72 pp. A duplication of the instruction covered in the Pontiac Service Craftsman Training School on the Pontiac car.

Fuel System. 77 pp. A manual prepared for use of the mechanic on the Pontiac car.

Hydro-matic Drive. 1948. 192 pp. Part of the training course for mechanics working on Pontiac cars.

1946-47 Model Supplement to 1941-42 Shop Manual. 1947. 128 pp. A discussion and description of the construction features and service procedures for mechanics on the Pontiac car.

Shop Manual, 1941-42 Models. 1941. 414 pp. Construction features and service procedures for mechanics working on the 1941 and 1942 Pontiac cars.

Publications of the United Nations, Lake Success, N. Y., Dept. of Pub. Information, *How Can UNESCO Contribute to Peace?* (Archibald MacLeish)

Information Concerning Model Meetings of United Nations Organizations.

Information Services and Embassies in the United States of Members of the United Nations.

Miscellaneous Nonofficial Publications about the United Nations.

Secretary-General's United Nations Flag Regulations.

The Struggle for Lasting Peace. (Trygve Lie)

United Nations Volunteer Educational Centers in U. S. A.

United Nations Programme (Radio) in English for the U. S. A.

What to Get and Where to Get It.

Regents' Statement of Major Educational Needs of the State of New York. Albany, N. Y.: The Univ. of the State of N. Y. 1948. 18 pp. A summarizing statement recommending constructive legislation in line with the studies conducted by

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Report of the Third National Conference on Citizenship. Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1201—16th St., N. W. 1948. 112 pp. Contains a summary by the conference reporter; excerpts from the written reports of the 27 groups into which the conference was divided; addresses of the conference; and excerpts from *America's Town Meeting of the Air* in its discussion of "How Should Democracy Deal with Groups Which Aim to Destroy Democracy?"

Resumé of the Proceedings of the Fifteenth National Conference on Labor Legislation. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Standards, U. S. Dept. of Labor. 1948. 51 pp. Free. A review of progress in state labor legislation, recommendations of the delegates, results of deliberations, and addresses given at the national conference.

School Housing Needs in City School Systems. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division, NEA, 1201—16th St., N. W. Dec. 1948. 24 pp. 50c. A study which defines and underscores the general problem of school housing.

Science Clubs of America Sponsor Handbook. Washington 6, D. C.: Science clubs of America, 1719 N St., N. W. 1948. 100 pp. \$1.00. The 1949 edition of this annual Science Clubs of America publication. The areas covered include: how to organize a science club, activities and projects to do, how to conduct a science fair, a list of recommended books, a list of free and low-cost materials for science clubs, a tabulation of the number of science clubs by states and foreign countries, and the story of the "Eighth Science Talent Search."

SIEPMANN, C. A. *The Radio Listener's Bill of Rights.* New York 10: Anti-defamation League of B'nai B'rith, Publications Dept., 212 Fifth Ave., Suite 1300. 1948. 52 pp. 20c. The radio as a servant of society and the individual's responsibility for action in securing programs of public service and in eliminating broadcasting abuses.

SNYDER, H. E. *A Practical Approach to International Cultural Relations.* Washington, D. C.: The American Council on Education. 1948. 10 pp. An article stressing the individual's responsibility for peaceful international relations, which first appeared in the October, 1948, issue of *The Educational Record*.

STEWART, MAXWELL S. *Women and Their Money.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 E. 38th St., 1949. 32 pp. 20c. A guide for women who need to put their financial affairs in order and want to invest wisely.

Tools for Tomorrow. New York 16: Division of Youth Services, The American Jewish Committee, 386 Fourth Ave. 1948. 14 pp. An announcement of tools and services available to leaders interested in improving human relations.

Toward a Stronger United Nations. (No. 3373) Washington, D. C.: Dept. of State. 1948. 12 pp. Questions and answers concerning the development and status of international co-operation.

Understanding Democracy. Detroit 2, Michigan: The Citizenship Education study, 436 Merrick Ave. 1948. 12 pp. 1-9 copies, 25c; 10-99 copies, 22½c; 100 or

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Universities in Need. Paris: UNESCO. 1948. 32 pp. A country-by-country analysis of the devastation wrought and of the difficulties of student life in Europe and Asia; a general list of needs for recovery; a resumé of operative efforts toward educational reconstruction. Pictures and text point up the importance of education by the very intentness evidenced in reducing the institutions to ruins.

Up to Now. New York 5: The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway. 1949. 21 pp. The history of the Foundation with a list of places which have been granted appropriations for research and a chart showing the distribution of polio cases in the states.

WEAVER, H. M. *The Research Story of Infantile Paralysis.* New York 5: The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis. 1948. 28 pp. States clearly the four-fold goals of the research program of the Foundation and the progress which has been made.

When You Have Polio. New York 5: The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis. 1949. 22 pp. A handbook for the guidance of adolescent and adult patients with poliomyelitis.

Why a State Art Director? New York 17: Related Arts Service, 511 Fifth Avenue. 1949. 4 pp. A report from three states outlining objectives and procedure, which briefly answers the title question.

Wisconsin Reading Circle Annual. Madison: State Reading Circle Board, State Dept. of Pub. Instruction. 1948. 69 pp. A supplement to the lists published since 1945. A recommended and classified reading list for students at all grade levels. A list of "medal" books as an aid to purchasing. Suggested minimum reading and book report forms. A plan of diploma awards for reading circle. Classified list of professional books and magazines and recommended fiction for teachers. Publicizes service of free traveling library of the state.

WOOLARD, B. B. *In the Minds of Men and Holiday in Hawaii.* Richmond 4, Va.: Woolard Plays, Box 536. Class Day Pageants—one serious and based on an international peace theme; the other, light and colorful. *Catalog of Plays for All Occasions* on request.

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